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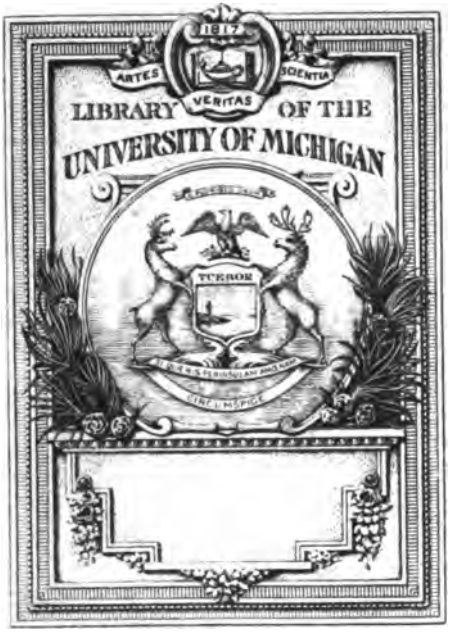
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VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE,

DURING THE REIGN OF

CATHARINE THE SECOND,

AND TO THE

CLOSE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

By WILLIAM TOOKE, F.R.S.

MEMBER OF THE IMPERIAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AND OF THE FREE ECONOMICAL SOCIETY AT ST. PETERSBURG.

IN THREE VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

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THE Russian Empire, which in various respects now fixes the attention of Europe, has for several years been the subject of a multitude of investigations and writings, by which the knowledge of that country is considerably improved and enlarged. The care which Catharine the second, from her first accession to the throne, and during the whole of her reign, devoted to the cultivation of this knowledge, has been attended with so much success, that Russia, which, prior to the year 1762, was a sort of terra incognita in our part of the globe, is now in possession of a very considerable store of materials, from which the present state of this remarkable country may be illustrated and described. The first and most important step to the elucidation of the natural and moral condition of Russia was the appointment of the academicians of St. Petersburg to travel for the purpose of exploring its qualities in both these respects; and their journals still form the basis of all that we know with certainty of the internal state of this extensive empire. These important discoveries assisted the zeal of some industrious

foreigners, who either in the country itſelf, or by correſpondence and connections, collected uſeful materials, and communicated the reſult of their labours to the public. By the introduction of the governments, which, beſides the beneficial effects they produced on the political adminiſtration of the empire, greatly aſſiſted the knowledge of the country, by the admeaſurement and ſurvey of the diſtricts aſſigned them, which facilitated the conſtruction of ſpecial charts on a more accurate plan; by the more adequate enumeration of the people, &c. but, above all, by the wiſe and enlightened publicity with which it was allowed to treat of theſe matters, this knowledge acquired ſuch a powerful acceſſion, that the idea of a ſyſtematical digeſt of all the neceſſary materials was no longer to be conſidered as a vain ſpeculation. Buſching, at firſt, and after him Meſſrs. Schlœtzer, Herrmann, Hupel, and laſtly Storch, drew up their topographies and ſtatiſtics of the empire. Still, however, the voluminous journals of the academicians lay unopened to this country, and the travels of Pallas, Guldenſtædt, Georgi, Lepekhin, Falk, the Gmelins, Fiſcher, and others, were in England known only by the occaſional mention of their extraordinary value, with deſerved encomiums on the talents and labours of their authors, in the reports of our countrymen on their return from a tranſient viſit to St. Peterſburg.

Having paſſed the greater part of the long reign of the late empreſs in her dominions, favoured for many

many years with the friendſhip and intimacy of two ſucceſſive directors of the academy *, with free acceſs to its libraries and collections, and being perſonally acquainted with ſeveral of the travellers themſelves, I preſume to lay before the public this View of the Ruſſian Empire, in which I have faithfully followed the authors abovementioned, and delivered my vouchers wherever it was neceſſary, as the reader will generally find at the foot of the pages.

I have beſtowed much care and pains in the compilation of this work from the learned writers abovementioned and other authentic ſources; and this is all the merit to which I pretend; yet would it be the height of arrogance to expect that it can be free from faults: theſe muſt be ſubmitted to the indulgence of the reader. And if, amidſt the great variety of matter, and the ſeveral authors in various languages conſulted, I have not failed in rendering it both intereſting and entertaining I ſhall be perfectly ſatisfied.

Ruſſia, an empire but little known or regarded in the laſt century, at the opening of the preſent made her appearance all at once among the ſtates of Europe; and, after a ſhort trial of her powers, became the umpire and the arbitreſs of the North. The whole ſyſtem of Europe took another form; the arctic eagle extended her influence to the regions of the Adriatic and the banks of the Tagus,

* M. Domaſhnef and Katarina Romanovna princeſs Daſhkof.

while the lightning of her eye ſtruck terror into the receſſes of mount Caucaſus and made the Helleſpont tremble. The arts of Europe were tranſplanted and bloomed both on the ſhores of the Neva and thoſe of the Irtyſh; a new world was opened to commerce; and the ſciences, the manners, the luxury, the virtues, and the vices of weſtern Europe have found their way into the deſerts of oriental Aſia, and to the inhoſpitable coaſts of the Frozen ocean. The æra of theſe remarkable phenomena was the commencement of the eighteenth century *.

Arrived now at the extreme verge of that period, it muſt be curious and inſtructive to look back and compare the two epochas together. To conſider what Ruſſia was at the beginning of this century, to ſee what the ſucceſſors of Peter have built on the foundation laid by that great and aſpiring genius, what progreſs has been ſince made by civilization, and what impreſſion the rapid and violent introduction of foreign manners, the ſettlement of ſo many thouſand foreigners, and the intercourſe with foreign nations, have produced.

In order to ſatisfy himſelf on theſe particulars, the reader will here ſee a complete arrangement

* In the year 1697 Peter the Great began his firſt journey into foreign countries. In 1699 he concluded the armiſtice with the Porte, by which he acquired Azof, and was enabled to conſtruct a navy on the Euxine. In 1700 the battle of Narva was fought, where the Swedes for the laſt time ſhewed their ſuperiority in diſcipline and the arts of war.

as far as it goes, of ſtatements drawn from authentic ſources, of facts related by eye witneſſes of what they deliver, men of ſcience ſent out for the expreſs purpoſe of collecting information on the ſtate of the countries they were to viſit, furniſhed on their expedition with every accommodation that could poſſibly be procured, for facilitating their inquiries and freeing their minds from all ſollicitudes about collateral objects of ſecurity and ſubſiſtence. The ſame generous patronage and care was continued to them on their return: they ſat down in eaſe and affluence to commit the reſult of their inquiries to paper; and the ſubſtance of what they relate will be found in the following pages. This is all that ſeems neceſſary for me to ſay; and I humbly conclude in the words of the hiſtorian: "Si in tanta "ſcriptorum turba mea fama in obſcuro ſit; nobili- "tate & magnitudine eorum, qui nomini officient "meo, me conſoler."

LONDON,
June 20, 1799.

INTRODUCTION.

About the middle of the year 1767, Catharine II. conceived the uſeful project of ſending ſeveral learned men to travel into the interior of her vaſt territories, to enable themſelves to determine the geographical poſition of the principal places, to mark their temperature, and to examine into the nature of their ſoil, their productions, their wealth, as well as the manners and characters of the ſeveral people by whom they are inhabited.

A country of ſuch a prodigious extent as the ruſſian empire, muſt naturally attract the notice of every man who wiſhes to increaſe his knowledge, whether it be conſidered in regard to the aſtoniſhing number of tribes and nations by which it is inhabited, the great diverſity of climates under which they live, or the almoſt infinite variety of natural curioſities with which it abounds. But the greater part of this country is ſtill immerſed in the profoundeſt barbariſm, and almoſt inacceſſible to the inveſtigations of the ordinary traveller. Here vagrant hordes of people, who, entirely addicted to the paſtoral life, roam from place to place, ſhunning the ſocial

ſocial manners of towns and villages, negligent of agriculture, and leaving uncultivated and almoſt in a deſert-ſtate vaſt tracts of land bleſſed with the moſt favourable ſoil and the moſt happy temperature of ſeaſons: there, peaſants, and even in many places inhabitants of towns, ſlaves to a thouſand prejudices, languiſhing in bondage to the moſt ſtupid ſuperſtitions; brought up, beſides, in the ſevereſt ſervitude, and, being accuſtomed to obey by no other means than blows, are forced to ſubmit to the harſheſt treatment: none of thoſe affectionate admonitions, thoſe prudent and impelling motives, which uſually urge mankind to action, make any impreſſion on their degraded minds; they reluctantly labour the fields of a hard maſter, and ſtudiouſly conceal from his knowledge thoſe riches which ſome accident, ſo deſirable in other countries, ſhould have led them to diſcover; as they would only augment the number of their toils and the heavineſs of their yoke. Hence that careleſs contempt for the treaſures preſented them by Nature, and the neglect of thoſe bounties ſhe laviſhes on them. Hence thoſe immenſe deſerts almoſt totally deſtitute of cultivation and ſo many towns that are falling to decay.

Peter the Great, of too penetrating a view not to perceive both the evil and its cauſes, took all imaginable pains, and adopted the wiſeſt meaſures to ameliorate the condition of an empire, ſo powerful from numberleſs other circumſtances, to free his

ſubjects

ſubjects by gentle degrees from the ſhackles of barbariſm, to diffuſe on all ſides the benign light of arts and ſciences, to diſcover the treaſures concealed in his dominions, and to furniſh agriculture with the remedies and aſſiſtances adapted to its improvement. His travels into ſeveral countries of Europe for the acquiſition of ſuch kinds of knowledge as were moſt applicable to the uſe of his dominions, are ſufficiently known; as well as that in 1717 he honoured the royal academy of ſciences at Paris with his preſence, and expreſſed his deſire the following year to be admitted a member; that he kept up a regular correſpondence with that illuſtrious body, and that he ſent to it, as the firſt eſſay of his ingenious and magnificent enterpriſes, an accurate chart of the Caſpian, which he cauſed to be ſcrupulouſly taken on the ſpot. At the ſame time he fitted out and diſpatched ſeveral men of letters to various parts of his empire; one of them to make the tour of Ruſſia, and two others to proceed to Kazan and Aſtrakhan, to gain information of every thing of conſequence to be known in thoſe countries. In the year 1719, Daniel Amadeus Meſſerſchmidt, a phyſician of Dantzic, was ſent into Siberia, for the purpoſe of making inquiries into the natural hiſtory of that immenſe province, from which expedition he only returned at the beginning of 1727. This learned man did honour to the choice that had been made of him, by an indefatigable activity, and by the proofs he gave of his profound knowledge,

ledge, not only in every department of natural hiſtory, but likewiſe in antiquities, as well as in aſtronomy, having carefully determined the elevation of the pole in all the places where he ſtopped.

As the northern regions, particularly thoſe of Siberia, were as yet but little known, and as it was very uncertain whether the extremity of theſe latter might not touch upon America, Peter I. ſent from Archangel two ſhips, with orders to proceed, by the White-ſea and the Northern-ocean, into the Frozen-ocean, where they experienced the ſame diſaſters as had befallen the other veſſels that had gone before them in this attempt; for one of the two was caught by the fields of ice, and diſabled from proceeding any farther; and as no tidings were ever heard of the other, it, in all probability, periſhed. Peter I. was not diſcouraged by the failure of this undertaking; but he was carried off by death as he was preparing a new expedition; he had given the charge of it to two daniſh captains, Behring and Spangberg, and a Ruſſian named Tchirikof, with orders to go to Kamtſhatka, whence they were to ſail for exploring the northernmoſt coaſts of Siberia. The ſorrowful event of the emperor's death made no alteration in theſe diſpoſitions; and the plan was carried into execution, the ſame winter, by the empreſs Catharine I. who ſent a ſmall company of literati, provided with a paper of inſtructions, which Peter had framed with his own hand. They

They returned in 1730, after having penetrated very far towards the north.

The empreſs Anne was deſirous of proſecuting theſe important reſearches ſtill farther, and ordered the erection of a new company, in which Behring was to be employed as captain of the ſhip. Kamtſhatka was again the point of departure for making the principal diſcoveries, with orders to neglect nothing that might ſhed any light on the knowledge of the globe. One part of this ſociety was to navigate the northern ſeas, while the others were to repair by land to Kamtſhatka over Siberia. Theſe latter were to act conformably with the inſtructions of the imperial academy of Peterſburg, and to employ themſelves particularly in aſtronomical obſervations, geometrical operations, and deſcriptions relative to the political and natural hiſtory of the countries through which they were to paſs.

John George Gmelin was one of the chief of thoſe who undertook the journey by land; almoſt always accompanied by profeſſor Muller, who had the care of the hiſtorical part. They reached as far as Yakutſk; where Kraſcheninikof, the aſſiſtant Steller, the painter Berkhan, and the ſtudent Gorlanof, quitted them to go to Kamtſhatka, of which they collected the political and natural hiſtory, as well as that of the department of Okhotſk. M. de l'Iſle de la Groyere likewiſe went thither with ſome land ſurveyors. Afterwards M. Fiſcher was

ſent

ſent in the department of political hiſtory; he reached very near to the province of Okhotſk, which he left in the deſign of returning *.

In 1760, M. l'abbé Chappe d'Auteroche was ſent into Ruſſia, by order and at the expence of the king of France, for obſerving at Tobolſk the tranſit of Venus over the ſun: his obſervations, publiſhed with great oſtentation, contain not near ſo much as was expected from that academician; and many of thoſe which he relates had been already long ſince known.

The empreſs Catharine II. was determined to proſecute theſe uſeful inveſtigations, and accordingly gave orders to the academy of ſciences to make choice of a company of able and learned men to travel over different diſtricts of the empire with attention and obſervation. The ſelection of the learned travellers, the helps that were granted them, the excellent inſtructions and advice that were given them, will be a laſting honour to that academy. The very names of a Pallas, a Gmelin, and a Guldenſtædt, already promiſed much. M. Lepekhin had likewiſe acquired a reputation by different papers inſerted in the academical collections; and the reſult of the labours of theſe enlightened men has been ſeen in the extenſive utility which they have ſince produced. Very few of the accounts that have

* For more particulars the reader is referred to the preface of Mr. J. G. Gmelin to the firſt volume of his travels in Siberia which appeared at Gœttingen 1751. A French tranſlation, or rather abſtract of it, was given by M. de Keralio, Paris 1767.

been

been given by travellers contain ſo great a variety of new and important matters. The journals of theſe celebrated ſcholars even furniſh ſuch a great quantity of materials entirely new, for the hiſtory of the three kingdoms of nature, for the theory of the earth, for rural œconomy, in ſhort, for ſo many different objects relative to the arts and ſciences, that it would require, according to the judicious remark of M. Bekmann of Gœttingen, whole years and the labour of ſeveral literary men only to put theſe materials in order, and properly to claſs them.

In order to form an accurate idea of the different objects to which our learned travellers were enjoined to direct their obſervations, it will be neceſſary to give an account of the inſtructions delivered to them by the academy at their departure. By theſe they were to make accurate examinations into — 1. The nature of the ſoil and that of the waters. 2. the means of putting the deſert places into cultivation. 3. The actual ſtate of agriculture. 4. The moſt common diſeaſes, both of men and cattle; and the methods in uſe of healing and preventing them. 5. The breeding of cattle, particularly ſheep, and that of bees and ſilk-worms. 6. The fiſhery and the chace. 7. Minerals and mineral waters. 8. Arts, trades, and objects of induſtry. 9. They muſt alſo apply to the diſcovery of intereſting plants: and, 10. To rectify the poſition of places, to make geographical and meteorological obſervations;

ſervations; to report all that relates to manners, various cuſtoms, languages, traditions, and antiquities; and mark down exactly whatever they ſhould find remarkable concerning all theſe points.

All theſe different views were fulfilled in a ſuperior manner by theſe gentlemen; and there is no exaggeration in what has been ſaid, that natural hiſtory never at one time obtained ſo great an increaſe of its treaſures, as by the ineſtimable fruit of the labours of theſe truly uſeful men; and their narratives are become a laſting monument of their zeal, their uncommon talents, and their unwearied activity.

Samuel George Gmelin, phyſician of Tubinguen, began the courſe of his travels June 23, 1768, accompanied by four ſtudents, James Gliutſharef, Stephen Kraſheninikof, Ivan Mikhailof, and Sergèy Meſlof; having with them an apothecary named Joachim Daniel Luther; Ivan Boriſſof a draftſman; Michael Kotof, a hunter by profeſſion, whoſe buſineſs it was to ſtuff the animals; and a ſufficient eſcort of ſoldiers. He directed his rout on leaving Peterſburg, through Stararuſſa, Valdai, Torjok, and Moſco, towards Voronetch; where he took up his winter quarters, and whence he afterwards paſſed through Oſtrogoſk, Pavlovſk, Kazanka, Cimlia and Tſcherkaſk, to Azof. From this laſt place he ſet out, about the middle of Auguſt 1769, to proceed by Tzaritzin to Aſtrakhan; he paſſed the winter in that city, and only quitted it in June 1770; he traverſed, in this laſt half year, in the whole

whole courſe of 1771, and part of 1772, the north of Perſia; viſited Derbent, Baku, Schamaky, Entzili, Peribazar, Ghilan, Mazanderan, returned to Entzili, where he paſſed the winter, and reſumed, in April 1772, the route to Aſtrakhan. The third volume of his Journal cloſes with the deſcription of theſe countries. This able traveller was continually obliged to ſtruggle with adverſe events, while traverſing the northern provinces of Perſia; he had eſpecially to contend with ſickneſſes, and the difficulties thrown in his way by the khans of that kingdom; and he is deſerving of the title of a martyr to natural hiſtory, with the greater right, as, after having adorned his life with ſo many labours, he cloſed it under the weight of perſecutions, and in the miſeries of captivity *. The greater part of the writings he left behind him were forced, not without great difficulty, from the hands of the barbarians.

Peter Simon Pallas, M. D. and profeſſor of natural hiſtory, long famous in that branch of knowledge, took his departure from St. Peterſburg

* He was ſeized upon at 90 verſts from Derbent, in the diſtrict of Uſmey-khan, and there actually died in priſon. The empreſs gave a gratification to his widow, after this deplorable event, by granting her one year's pay of the ſalary ſhe had aſſigned to her huſband during his travels, conſiſting of 1600 rubles. If the worthy Gmelin had not undertaken his ſecond and unfortunate journey into Perſia, rather as a merchant than as a literaryman, and if he had not conſtantly gone by land, he would not eaſily have fallen into the hands of Uſmey-khan.

towards the middle of June 1768. In his progreſs he viſited Novgorod, Valdai, Moſco, Vladimir, Kazimof, Murom, Arſamas, the country extending between the Sura and the Volga, and wintered at Simbirſk, of which he examined all the adjacent parts. The 10th of March 1769, he turned off to Samara, Syzran, Orenburg, croſſed the countries watered by the Yaïk, and repaired to Gurief-gorodok, which ſeemed then to be the general rendezvous of our academical travellers. Here he met, among others, the unfortunate profeſſor Lovitz *, who had juſt eſtabliſhed his obſervatory, his aſſiſtant Ichonodzof, and lieutenant Euler: M. Lepekhin was alſo at that time in the neighbourhood of Gurief. M. Pallas employed himſelf, during the whole of his ſtay in this place, in examining the coaſts and the iſles of that part of the Caſpian that lay within his reach. Hence he returned by the ſame road, in order to go, by the way of Orenburg, to Ufa,

* M. Lovitz loſt his life in a dreadful manner, during the time that the rebels, who produced ſo much confuſion in Ruſſia in the preceding war againſt the Turks, were ravaging the colonies of the evangelical brethren. Our naturaliſt was taken at Dobrinka, where he thought himſelf in the greateſt ſafety. A band of theſe rebels dragged him as far as the borders of the Slovla, where their chief had his quarters; and, in the month of Auguſt 1774, he was there firſt impaled alive, and afterwards hanged. The aſſiſtants of Lovitz, Ichonodzof and his ſon, having found means of eſcaping, ſaved all his writings and a part of his inſtruments. Several farther particulars relating to this learned traveller, may be ſeen in Buſching's Wochentliche nachrichten, 1775, p. 56 & ſqq.

where

where he arrived the 2d of October; and after having ſpent there the winter, he ſet out, the 10th of March 1770, for the mountains of Ural, and the province of Iſſet: the 23d of June he reached Ekatarinenburg, where he made his obſervations on the great number of mines that are worked in that diſtrict; he proceeded afterwards to the fortreſs of Tſcheliabinſk, whence, about the middle of December, he took his courſe to Tobolſk. M. Pallas had ſojourned the greater part of the winter at Tſcheliabinſk, and traverſed and examined, partly by himſelf and partly by his aſſiſtant M. Lepekhin, and by profeſſor Falk, almoſt all the government of Orenburg, when this latter alſo came, about the middle of March 1771, followed ſhortly after by his aſſiſtant Georgi, to join him in this town of Tſcheliabinſk. Captain Ritſchkof, who had hardly quitted M. Pallas all the winter, now left him, and ſet out upon another journey.

M. Pallas finally left his winter-quarters at Tſcheliabinſk the 16th of April 1771, directed his courſe by the Omſk, followed the courſe of the Irtyſh, viſited the mines in the environs of Kolyvan, went to the Schlangenberg (or ſerpentine mountains) and to Barnaul; where he found Mr. Falk ſick, who was come from Omſk by the ſteppes or deſerts of Barabin. From Barnaul M. Pallas proceeded to Tomſk, and arrived the 10th of October 1771 at Kraſnoyarſk upon the Yeniſſey, which he had made choice of for his winter-quarters. It was there that

the ſtudent Suyef came up to him again, in the month of January 1772; he had made, in the courſe of the laſt ſummer, a journey the length of the Oby towards the Frozen-ocean, and was returned to communicate his obſervations to M. Pallas, who was again joined, in the month of February, by M. Georgi, who had hitherto ſerved as aſſiſtant to M. Falk, and afterwards by the ſtudents Bykof, Kaſchkaref, and Lebedef, whom M. Falk, forced by the bad ſtate of his health to return, had ſent to M. Pallas.

Our learned traveller left his winter-quarters the 7th of March 1772, to proceed, with M. Georgi and two ſtudents, by Irkutſk to the lake Baikal, whither he had already ſent M. Sokolof in the month of January. After having ſeen the environs of that lake, Selinginſk and Irkutſk, he regained, the 12th of July, the route of Kraſnoyarſk, where he ſet up his winter-quarters, after having viſited the Sayane mountains. In the month of January 1773, they ſet out on their return, in which they took the way of Tomſk, Tara on the Irtyſh, Kazan, Sarapul, Yaitſkoi-gorodok, Aſtrakhan, and through the country that borders the Sarpa to Tzaritzin, where he met again M. Sokolof, whom he had ſent to viſit the ſteppe or deſert of Kuman. After having wintered at Tzaritzin, and made ſeveral excurſions from that city towards the Volga, he returned at length by Moſco to St. Peterſburg, where he arrived the 30th of June 1774.

We

We ſee, by this ſhort ſketch of M. Pallas's travels, that he went over a great part of the ſame countries which the firſt, third, and fourth volumes of the travels of J. George Gmelin had deſcribed. But this ought not to induce us to regard the labour of M. Pallas as a repetition, which might eaſily have been diſpenſed with; the plan of M. Gmelin differed entirely from his, and was incomparably more contracted, as to the department of natural hiſtory. Beſides, profeſſor Pallas took quite other courſes than thoſe of M. Gmelin: and Siberia had in the interval acquired an altogether different face, as well by the extenſion of its frontiers as by the eſtabliſhments that have increaſed its population, by the new and important mines that have been put in produce, and the founderies that have been erected there; ſo that it cannot fail of gaining infinitely by any compariſon that might be made between his accounts and thoſe of Gmelin.

JOHN AMADEUS GEORGI, member of the ſociety of natural hiſtory at Berlin, was at firſt deſtined by the imperial academy to relieve profeſſor Falk, who was commiſſioned with what was called the expedition of Orenburg, and then known to be in a bad ſtate of health. He ſet out in conſequence, the 1ſt of June 1770, took the route by Moſco and Aſtrakhan, and met M. Falk in the ſteppe of the Kalmuks, very near to an armenian caravan. He followed him acroſs that ſteppe to Uralſk (at that time Yaitſkoi-gorodok) and to Orenburg, where they remained till the end of the year. At the beginning of

1771, they travelled by conſent into the province of Iſſet, M. Falk along the lines of Orenburg, and M. G orgi by the Baſchkirèy and the Ural. He took, during the illneſs that detained M. Falk, ſeveral little journies from Tſchelyœba, capital of the province, towards ſeveral places, for obſerving a variety of natural curioſities, and the nations of the country; finding themſelves at length in a capacity to continue their courſes, at the latter end of June M. Falk proceeded by Iſetſkoi to Omſk on the Irtyſh, and directed M. Georgi to come and join him at the laſt-mentioned place by the new lines of Siberia, or of Iſchim on the frontiers of the Kirghiſes. They then proceeded in company acroſs the ſteppe of Barabin, to ſee the ſilver mines of Kolyvan near the Oby. They went alſo afterwards to viſit Barnaul, and, as much as a ſerious malady, with which M. Falk was attacked anew, would permit, the mountainous diſtrict of the mines of Altay, and the founderies that depend on Barnaul. Towards the end of November they continued their journey, following the firſt elevations of mount Kuſnetſk, to Tomſk. It was in this city that M. Falk received from Peterſburg a permiſſion to return, on account of his ill ſtate of health. M. Pallas, the chief of the expedition, now remaining alone in the vaſt regions of Siberia, M. Georgi, as we have already ſeen, was entered of his company, and travelled, though ſeparately, under his direction.

We ſhall here give a ſhort intimation of the places viſited by M. Georgi: from Irkutſk he proceeded to the lake Baikal, of which he drew an excellent chart, and thence into Daouria, for the purpoſe of examining the mines of that name, and into the diſtrict of the mines of Arguſſin: thence he returned by Irkutſk to Tomſk, Tara, Tobolſk, Iſetſkoi, Ilina, Ekatarinenburg, and Ufa, viſiting all the mines of thoſe countries; he returned thence by Perme, on the Ural of the Baſchkirs; once more from Ufa to Tzaritzin and Orenburg; and laſtly along the Volga, from Aſtrakhan to Peterſburg by Saratof, Bolgari, Kazan, Makarief, Pavlova, Niſhney-Novgorod, Yaroſlavl, and Tver. On the 10th of September 1774, he arrived in the imperial reſidence.

On coming to Kazan in March 1774, M. Georgi found profeſſor Falk ſtill there, and extremely ill, which illneſs he terminated, together with his life, by his own hand a few days after. Two or three particulars of his biography * will not be diſagreeable to the reader.

M. FALK was born in Weſtrogothia, a province in Sweden, about the year 1727. He ſtudied medicine in the univerſity of Upſal, and went through a courſe of botany under the celebrated Linnæus, to whoſe ſon he was tutor. He publicly defended the diſſertation † which that famous botaniſt had

* From the Journal of M. Georgi.

† In the collection known under the title of *Linnæi amœnitates academicæ.*

compoſed on a new ſpecies of plants, which he called Aſtromeria. In the year 1760, when M. Georgi for the firſt time was at Upſal, the latter was already ſo deeply affected with depreſſion of ſpirits, that M. de Linné, in the view of obliging him to take exerciſe and diſſipation, ſent him to travel over the iſland of Gothland, to make a collection of the plants it produces, and the various kinds of corals and corallines which the ſea leaves on its ſhores. This voyage was attended with no diminution of his diſtemper, which found a continual ſupply of aliment in a ſanguine melancholy temperament, in a too ſedentary way of life, and in the bad ſtate of his finances.

Profeſſor Forſkael having left Upſal for Copenhagen in 1760, Falk followed him thither, in the deſign of applying, by the advice of M. de Linné, to be appointed aſſiſtant to M. Forſkael in his famous journey through Arabia; but, notwithſtanding all the pains that M. Œder and ſeveral other men of literary reputation at Copenhagen took in his behalf, his application failed, as the ſociety that were to go on that important expedition was already formed. Obliged, with much diſcontent, to return, he herboriſed as he travelled and enriched the Flora Suecica with ſeveral new diſcoveries.

A man in office at St. Peterſburg, having written to M. Linné to ſend him a director for his cabinet of natural hiſtory, M. Falk accepted the poſt, which led him to the chair of profeſſor of botany at the apothe-

apothecaries garden at St. Peterſburg, a place that had been vacant from the time that it was quitted by M. Siegeſbek. His hypochondriac complaint ſtill continued to torment him. When the imperial academy of ſciences was preparing in 1768 the plan of its learned expeditions, it took M. Falk into its ſervice, though his health was uncertain. He was recalled in 1771; but, having got only to Kazan in 1773, he there obtained permiſſion to go and uſe the baths of Kitzliar, from which he returned again to Kazan at the end of the year with his health apparently better.

But his diſeaſe ſoon returned with redoubled violence. From the month of December 1773, he had never quitted his bed, nor taken any other nouriſhment than bread dried in the ſwediſh manner (knækebroed), of which he ſcarcely took once a day ſome mouthfuls dipped in tea. At firſt he received the viſits of a few friends; but afterwards denied himſelf to them, and was reduced to the ſtricteſt ſolitude. When M. Georgi went to ſee him, nothing ſeemed left of him but a ſkeleton of a wild and terrifying aſpect. The few words he drew from him conſiſted in complaints occaſioned by a hoſt of diſeaſes which kept his body in torture, and threw him into the moſt cruel ſleepleſſneſs. The laſt evening M. Georgi kept him company till midnight. He ſpoke little, and ſaid nothing that could give reaſon to ſuſpect the deſign he was meditating. His hunter, and at the ſame time his truſty ſervant, offered

offered to ſit up with him the night; but he could not be perſuaded to conſent.

M. Georgi being requeſted the next day, March 31, to come to the lodging of the unfortunate gentleman, he found him lying before his bed, covered with blood; beſide him lay a razor, with which he had given himſelf a ſlight wound in the throat, the fatal piſtol and a powder-horn; all together preſenting a tremendous ſpectacle. He had put the muzzle of the piſtol againſt his throat, and, reſting the pommel upon his bed, he diſcharged the contents in ſuch manner, that the ball having gone through his head, had ſtuck in the ceiling. His ſoldier had ſeen him ſtill ſitting up in his bed at four o'clock, at which time he uſually fell into a ſhort ſlumber. In his chamber was found a note written the evening before, betraying throughout the diſtracted ſtate of his mind, but nothing declaratory of his deſign, or that was of any importance.

M. Falk, like all hypochondriac perſons, was not very communicative, and on certain occaſions was diſtruſtful. But at the ſame time he was of a ſedate temper, complaiſant, and upright, which made it a very eaſy matter to bear with him, and ſecured to him the indulgence of all his acquaintance. His extreme ſobriety had enabled him to make ſome ſavings from his pay, though he was very beneficent; it was not therefore indigence that drove him to this act of violence. He was of a cold

a cold conſtitution, preferring ſolitude and quiet to ſociety, to the company of his friends, and to ordinary amuſements, which yet he did not ſhun, except in the latter period of his life. As to religion, he ſhewed on all occaſions more reſpect for it, than any ſtrong effuſions of zeal. It was ſolely to be aſcribed to the violence of his diſtemper, and the weakneſs of mind which it brought on, that led him to put a period to his days. The fate of this unfortunate ſcholar was generally and juſtly lamented *.

In the number of thoſe who were of the expedition of M. Pallas was alſo captain NICHOLAS RYTSCHKOF, ſon of Peter Ivanovitch Rytſchkof, counſellor of ſtate, who made himſelf famous for his topography of Orenburg. Rytſchkof the ſon, in 1769, went over ſome diſtricts of the governments of Kazan and Orenburg; proceeded eaſtwards from Simbirſk, and thence northwards beyond the Kama, declining afterwards to the north-eaſt along the Ural mountains, which he traverſed in his way to Orenburg. In 1770 he viſited the coun-

* His papers were found in the greateſt diſorder. They contain, however, very uſeful and important relations. He particularly made it his buſineſs to inquire about the Kirghiſes and other tartarian nations: and as he frequently remained for the ſpace of nine months together in the ſame place, he was enabled to procure ſatisfactory notions concerning the objects of his inveſtigations. The imperial academy, in 1774, appointed profeſſor Laxmann to arrange his manuſcripts in order for publication; which was done accordingly.

tries

tries extending the length of the weſtern bank of the Bielay, quite to the Kama, which he courſed as far downwards as Kazan; then, croſſing the province of Viatka, he paſſed on to Glinof, came into Perme, and ſurveyed the environs of Solikamſk: thence deſcending along the Kama nearly as far as Kungur, he proceeded by Ekatarinenburg to Tſchelyabinſk. In 1771, on departing from Orſk, he viſited the ſteppe of the Kirghis-kozaks on this ſide the Yaïk, paſſed the rivers Irgis and Turgui, came as far as the mountains of Ulu-tau, thence bore away to Uſt-viſk and Orenburg, and came at laſt, by a part of the province of Ufa, quite to the Dioma.

M. Lepekhin, by birth a Ruſſian, who, after having gone through his firſt ſtudies at the imperial academy of ſciences at St. Peterſburg, went to purſue a courſe of medical ſtudy at Straſburg, where he was admitted M. D. and was received in 1768 as adjunctus, and in 1771 member of the ſame imperial academy, was at the head of another of theſe expeditions. He ſet out the 8th of June 1768, from Peterſburg, and proceeded ſtraight to Moſco; thence by Vladimir, Murom, Arſamas, Alatyr, conſequently by the government of Niſhney-Novgorod, to Simbirſk in the province of Kazan: from which place he ſet out in the month of Auguſt, to viſit the courſe of the river Tſcheremſchan, which divides the government of Kazan from the province of Stavropol, and thence travelled over various

various parts of the government of Orenburg. In autumn he reached Stavropol, paſſed the winter at Simbirſk, and the ſpring of 1769 in the province of that name: the following ſummer he came to Aſtrakhan; from which city, in the month of Auguſt, he made an extremely remarkable journey to Gurief, croſſing the ſteppe which extends between the Volga and the Yaïk; from Gurief he went up along the Yaïk as far as Orenburg, and reached in the month of October the little town of Tabynſk ſituate near the centre of the Ural of Orenburg on the river Bielaya, where he wintered. In the month of May following, he purſued upwards the courſe of the Bielaya, examined the mountains, came in July to Ekatarinenburg, ſtruck forwards into the Ural, and attained, beyond the Kungur, to the ſummit of the higheſt of the Ural of Orenburg, whence he returned to Ekatarinenburg, and paſſed the winter at Tiumin in the province of Tobolſk.

In the month of May 1771, he reached the ſummit of the higheſt mountain of the Ural-chain, which runs between Verkoturia and Solikamſk, viſited, during the ſummer, the province of Viatka, proceeded by Uſtiug to Archangel, where he embarked in order to examine the coaſts of the White-ſea. He made Archangel his winter-quarters that year. The following year, 1772, was employed by our learned traveller in making a ſecond courſe on the ſea juſt mentioned, along the ſhores and the iſles lying to the left of Archangel, as far as the weſtern and northern coaſts, proceeding thence to the mouth

of

of the White-ſea: he afterwards doubled Kaninnoſs, and at length returned by the gulph of Mezen to Archangel, whence he ſet out, towards the cloſe of the year, for St. Peterſburg. During the ſpring and ſummer of 1773, he viſited the environs of Pſcove, Velikiye-Luki, and Toropetz, with divers other parts of the governments of Pſcove and Mohilef: in the month of Auguſt he went from Polotſk along the Duna to Riga; whence he proceeded, following the ſea-ſhore, to Pernau, then to Valk, Neuhauſen, and Pſcove: after which he returned in December to St. Peterſburg, and probably thus terminated the travels on which he was ſent.

Dr. J. GULDENSTÆDT took his departure about the middle of June 1768, from St. Peterſburg, in order to proceed by Novgorod along the weſtern coaſt of the lake Ilmen, by Porkof, Staraia-ruſſa, and Toropetz, to Moſco, where he tarried from the 11th of September to the 8th of March 1769; when he ſet out for proceeding by Kolomna, Epiſani, Tula, and Eletz, to Voronetch; thence to Tavrof, to Tambof, to the fortreſs of Novochoperſkaia; and, after having courſed along the rivers Chopa, Medvieditza, and the banks of the Don, he arrived the 11th of October at Tzaritzin, where he remained till the 23d of November: he afterwards went to Aſtrakhan, where he arrived the 4th of December, and then proceeded to Kitzliar, a Ruſſian frontier town on the river Terek. This place he quitted in 1770, to viſit the countries watered

tered by that ſtream, by the Kunbalni, the Soontſcha, the Akſai, and the Koiſa, with the north-eaſt parts of mount Caucaſus; being often obliged in this courſe to return to Kitzliar, chiefly becauſe of the little ſafety he found in traverſing thoſe parts. It was for this reaſon, and on account of an illneſs that detained him, that he did not reach Georgia that year.

The 10th of February 1771, M. Guldenſtædt left Kitzliar, with a detachment of ruſſian troops, for Oſſetia, which is a diſtrict of mount Caucaſus; and ſo ſoon as the 17th of March he was already returned to Kitzliar, which he quitted for the laſt time the 18th of May, in order to go to the hot baths on the borders of the Terek. One of the moſt conſiderable of the princes of the leſſer Kabarda accompanied him, and ſhewed him, during the months of July and Auguſt, all that country, with the northern part of the caucaſean mountains inhabited by the Dugores. Thence he returned a ſecond time to Oſſetia on the Terek, whence he departed the 11th of September under the eſcort of ſome hundreds of Oſſetians, whom the tzar Heraclius had taken into his pay, and happily arrived with them in Georgia. He was, the 25th of September, at Duſchet, a town of Karduelia. The 9th of October he left that country, in order to proceed to the river Kur, at the ſame place where tzar Heraclius had appointed his troops to make their general rendezvous, and which was only fifteen verſts diſtant from

from Tefflis, its capital. It was there that M. Guldenſtedt had an audience in form of the tzar, who embraced him, made him ſit down in his preſence, and promiſed to grant him every aſſiſtance that he ſhould want; which promiſe he afterwards fulfilled. He made the campaign with the tzar, who puſhed with the main body of his army to the diſtance of above a hundred and twenty verſts up the courſe of the Kur; and he returned to Tefflis with that prince the 14th of November. He left this place again the 21ſt of February 1772, for Kakhetia, always in the ſuite of the tzar, and paſſed the whole of the month of March in that province of Georgia. He traverſed, in the month of May, thoſe provinces of Turcomania which are in ſubjection to tzar Heraclius. The 20th of June he went, for the laſt time, to Tefflis, in the reſolution of quitting Georgia, after he ſhould have made the tour of the provinces of tzar Solomon, and to return to Moſdok on the river Terek. On the 18th of July he made his obeiſance to that tzar, who had ſet up his ſummer-camp on the ſouthern bank of the river Rion, ſome verſts below the fortreſs of Minda. The prince gave our traveller a very gracious reception. The 5th of Auguſt 1772 he quitted the diſtrict of Radſcha, which makes part of the kingdom of Immeretia, and repaired to Kutatis, the capital of the lower Immeretia; then made the tour of the frontiers of Mingrelia and Guria, the eaſtern part of Immeretia and middle Georgia. Tzar Solomon

had given him an eſcort of three hundred Immeretians to attend him on his tour. As he was preparing to proceed farther on, he was forced for ſome time to ſuſpend his march, as the greater part of his people had fallen ſick. In this interval he received a ſupply of men, horſes, and proviſions, from a georgian nobleman whom a little before he had cured of an ailment. On the firſt of October he reached the laſt gruſinian or georgian village, where he was again obliged to ſtop for a month, in conſequence of advices that he received of three hundred Aſſetinians who were waiting on the ſhore of the Terek to attack and to plunder him. In the interim the major-general of Medem, being informed of his ſituation, ſent a detachment of ſix hundred men with two pieces of cannon, at the arrival of whom the robbers diſperſed. By this means M. Guldenſtædt happily regained the frontiers of Ruſſia, and returned firſt to Moſdok, and afterwards to Kitzliar. In April 1773, he made an excurſion to Peterſbade [the baths of Peter], whence he returned the ſucceeding month and immediately ſet out for Moſdok, and in the month of June went upwards along the Malka. From that river he turned off towards the eaſtern branch of the Kuma, and proceeded to the five mountains or Beſch-tau, which form the higheſt part of the firſt elevation of Caucaſus: he viſited the mines of Madſchar, from which he took the route of Tſcherkaſk, where he arrived the 24th of July. From this laſt town he made a tour to Azof;

being returned to Tſcherkaſk, he proceeded by Taganrok along the ſea-coaſt, croſſed the river Kalmius, following at the ſame time the Berda and the new lines of the Dniepr, and came by the eaſtern bank of that river to Krementſchuk, the capital of the government of New-Ruſſia, where he arrived the 7th of November, and paſſed the reſt of the winter. He had not yet quitted this government, though already on the way to the Krimea, when he received orders on the 20th of July 1774, as did all the other academical travellers, to return to St. Peterſburg. Accordingly he turned back, and came by Krementſchuk, and along the lines of the Ukraine as far as Bielefskaia-krepoſt; thence bent his courſe over Bachmut, and beyond towards the ſouth-eaſt and the eaſt, as far as the rivers Mius and Lugantſchik. Being returned to Bielefskaia-krepoſt, he left it for the ſecond time the 16th of December, and came by Kief to Serpukof; where, having collected all the perſons and all the effects belonging to his expedition, he took his departure the 20th of December for Moſco, and in the courſe of March arrived at St. Peterſburg *.

Such is the general outline of theſe intereſting travels from which the learned of Europe have received ſo much information, and which properly finds a place in the introduction to a work that

* See Bachmeiſter's Ruſſiſche Bibliothek, tom. i. ii. and iii. where very circumſtantial accounts of all the ſeveral courſes purſued by theſe travellers are to be found.

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owes ſo great a part of its materials to the labours of theſe academicians. The diſcoveries made by the Ruſſians at ſea at various epochas, and particularly during the reign of Catharine II. have been ſo faithfully laid before the public by Mr. Coxe in his well-known work profeſſedly written on that ſubject, that it would be unneceſſarily ſwelling the bulk of theſe volumes to ſay any more of them here. However, it is impoſſible to take leave of theſe expenſive and important miſſions without teſtifying our acknowledgment, with that ingenious and candid writer, of the benefits that have accrued to ſcience from theſe learned and laborious inveſtigations, and to join with him * and every friend to rational inquiry, " in the warmeſt admiration of " that enlarged and liberal ſpirit, which ſo ſtriking- " ly marked the character of the late empreſs of " Ruſſia; who, from her acceſſion to the throne, " made the inveſtigation and diſcovery of uſeful " knowledge the conſtant object of her generous " encouragement. The authentic records of the " ruſſian hiſtory were by her orders properly ar- " ranged; and permiſſion was granted of inſpect- " ing them. The moſt diſtant parts of her vaſt " dominions were at her expence explored and de- " ſcribed by perſons of great abilities and extenſive " learning; by which means new and important " lights have been thrown upon the geography and

* Coxe, Ruſſian diſcoveries between Aſia and America, preface, p. xi.

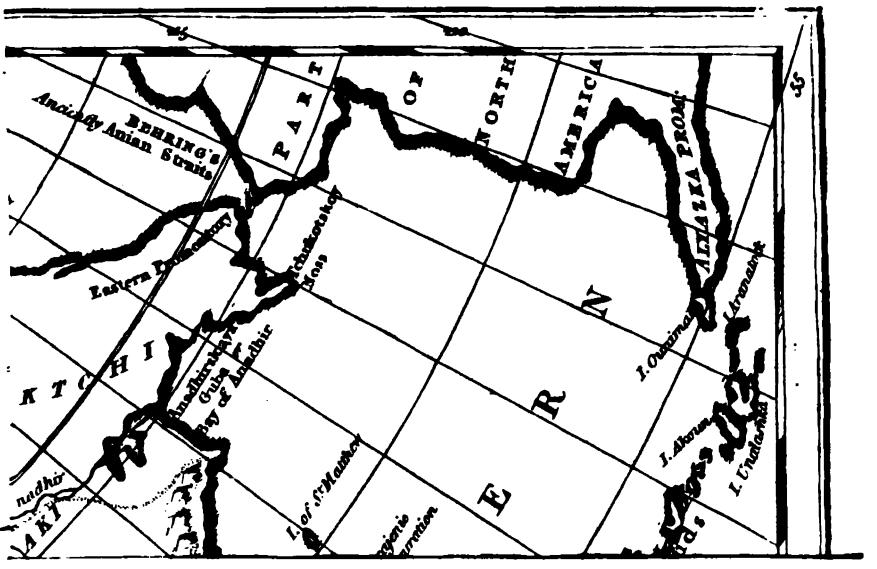
" natural

" natural hiſtory of thoſe remote regions. In a " word, this truly great princeſs contributed more " in the compaſs of only a few years, towards ci- " vilizing and informing the minds of her ſubjects, " than had been effected by all the ſovereigns her " predeceſſors ſince the glorious æra of Peter the " great."

ERRATA.

Vol. I. p. 285. line 6 of the note, for *call* read *called*.
318. line 22. for *contradiction* read *contradiſtinction*.
340. line 21. for *Yammula* read *Yammala*.
379. line 11. for *alſo* read *therefore*.
Vol. III. p. 55. line ult. for *maſhines* read *meſhes*.
p. 222. line 20. for *it* read *them*.

VIEW



Anciently Anian Straits
BEHRING'S
PART
OF
NORTH
AMERICA
ALLAZKA PROM.
Eastern Promontory
Tchukotskoy Noss
Anadhirskaya Guba
Bay of Anadhir
I. of St. Matthew
I. Ouaimal
I. Akrum
I. Unalaska
I. Aranatok
KTCHI
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VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK I.

OF THE NATURAL STATE OF THE EMPIRE.

SECTION I.

Amplitude, boundaries, and diviſion of the empire.

By Ruſſia is ſometimes underſtood the whole ruſſian empire; yet theſe two expreſſions have properly a very different ſignification. Ruſſia proper implies thoſe principalities and provinces which for many ages paſt have been inhabited by Ruſſians *; and the following are its diviſions, namely: 1. Great Ruſſia, which has always bore the name of Ruſſia

* For about 1300 or 1400 years, as far back as authentic hiſtory reaches: this however is principally to be underſtood of Great and Little Ruſſia.

in the ſtricteſt import *, and compriſes thoſe large tracts of country, principalities, viceroyalties, and dukedoms which have uninterruptedly compoſed the ruſſian dominion; as Moſco, Vladimir, Novgorod, Pſcove, Perieſlaf, Riaſanſkoi, Kaluga, Tula, Yaroſlaf, Koſtroma, Tver, Vologda, &c. 2. Little Ruſſia, comprehending the Ukraine †, or in general the preſent three governments of Kief, Tſchernigof, and Novgorod-Sieverſkoi ‡. 3. White Ruſſia, by which, for a long period of time, was meant the principality, or the preſent government of Smolenſk; to which are now added the two governments of Polotzk and Mohilef, ſtill ſometimes called the white-ruſſian territory: otherwiſe the name of White Ruſſia is no longer heard of. To theſe were added, 4. New Ruſſia, by which were denoted the large tracts of country near the Ukraine, towards Poland and the turkiſh dominion; namely, New Servia and the province St. Elizabeth, which now belong to the government of Ekatarinoſlaf, and therefore its name has fallen into diſuſe. — The three laſt have not always been united with Great Ruſſia.

But, by the ruſſian empire, is likewiſe underſtood, not only thoſe juſt mentioned, but alſo ſuch king-

* To take notice of its old obſolete names is the province of the antiquarian; and here would be out of place.

† Which word ſignifies *the borders*.

‡ It was long ſeparated from Great Ruſſia; but united to it again in 1654.

doms, countries, and provinces as have been at various times ſince added to it by conqueſts and appropriations; as, 1. The kingdom of Kazan, which was conquered by tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch in 1552, at preſent conſiſting of ſeveral governments. 2. The kingdom of Aſtrakhan, taken by the ſame monarch *; at preſent likewiſe divided into ſeveral governments. 3. The vaſt country of Siberia; which, by calculation, contains upwards of ten millions and a half of ſquare verſts, comprehending within it ſeveral kingdoms, taken by roving Kozaks on their own account, and then ſurrendered to the tzar, who completed the conqueſt; this at preſent conſiſts of ſeveral, but thoſe the moſt extenſive governments. 4. The provinces on the ſhores of the Baltic, captured from the Swedes by Peter I. and for ever incorporated with the ruſſian empire by two treaties of peace: Livonia, Eſthonia, Finland, and Ingria, or the preſent governments of Riga, Reval, Vyborg, and St. Peterſburg. 5. The countries taken from Poland, now the governments of Polotzk and Mohilef, which the empreſs Catharine II. united to the empire. 6. The territory ſhe annexed to Ruſſia by the peace concluded with the Turks in 1774. 7. The Krim and the Cuban, or the province of Taurida and the government of Caucaſus, united to the empire by that ſovereign in 1783. 8. The tributary iſlands in the eaſtern

* Kabarda, likewiſe, ſoon afterwards ſubmitted.

ocean, now added to Ruſſia. 9. The countries that have more recently ſubmitted to the ruſſian ſupremacy, namely, Kartuelia or Kartalinia, &c. 10. The poſſeſſions in America, conſiſting partly of iſlands, partly of the continent of California, where the principal eſtabliſhment is called Donaleſk. 11. Some other countries incorporated with the empire at various periods; as, the Kirghis-kozaks, of the middle and little horde, who ſubmitted themſelves in 1731, and ſeveral others.

Hence it appears that the ruſſian empire has not always been of ſuch magnitude as at preſent. Even in the thirteenth century Lithuania was not ſo far from Moſco * as now. From this ſlight inſpection it is manifeſt that the amplitude of the empire is far greater than that of the largeſt monarchy in ancient or modern times. Accordingly, the empreſs, in her letter of grace to the ruſſian nobility in 1785, expreſſes herſelf in the following manner: "The "ruſſian empire is diſtinguiſhed on the globe by "the extent of its territory, which reaches from "the eaſtern borders of Kamtſhatka to beyond the "river Duna which falls into the Baltic at Riga: "compriſing within its limits a hundred and ſixty-"five degrees of longitude; extending from the

* The proper name of this capital is Moſkva; but Moſco is grown into ſuch familiar uſe by long eſtabliſhed cuſtom, that we ſhould no more think of altering it than of reducing Warſaw to its right name of Varſchau, or calling the Tartars by their proper name Tatar.

"mouths

" mouths of the rivers Volga, Kuban, Don, and " Dniepr, which fall into the Caſpian, the Palus " Mœotis, and the Euxine, as far as the frozen " ocean, over two-and-thirty degrees of latitude." The ſame number of degrees is aſſigned it by this ſovereign, in her inſtructions to the commiſſion for framing a code of laws. But, from her own words, it plainly appears, that ſhe only takes notice of the countries contiguous to each other, according to the general extent; but none at all of the iſlands, or the numerous promontories and points of land that ſtrike out from them. The iſlands in the eaſtern ocean are not once mentioned. Even the iſle of Œſel, with its weſtern promontory, reaches ſeveral degrees farther than the river Duna. If we take all theſe into the account, the ruſſian empire, according to the neweſt and beſt charts, will be found to extend from about the forty-third to the ſeventy-eighth degree of north latitude; and from the thirty-ninth to the two hundred and fifteenth degree of longitude; this laſt however including the iſlands lying in the eaſtern ocean.

Without reckoning the iſlands, the empire extends in length above 9200 engliſh miles, and in breadth 2400. — From Riga to Anadyrſkoioſtrog, the diſtance is 11,298 verſts. — The kalendar of the imperial academy at Peterſburg ſets it down at ſomewhat leſs. If we draw a line acroſs Moſco, from Riga to the haven of Peter and Paul, as the

two

two extreme boundaries of the continent, we ſhall find it only 10,936 verſts; from Riga to Moſco being 1018, from thence to Petropavlofskoi port, 9918 verſts. On the contrary, according to that kalendar, the breadth is much larger. From Kertch to Moſco is reckoned at 1477, and from thence to Kola 2109 verſts; though it is notorious that theſe two places are not by far the extreme boundaries *.

With regard to the appellatives, Red, White, Black, &c. ſome farther explanation ſeems neceſſary. It is well known that the ſtate of Poland contained

* In order to render the extraordinary magnitude of the ruſſian territory more apparent by a compariſon, let us adduce to the above ſtatement the data which one of the beſt informed hiſtorians has given of the extent and circumference of the roman monarchy at the height of its grandeur. 1. At that time the roman empire contained about 1,600,000 ſquare miles; therefore exactly as much as only the european part of Ruſſia. 2. The greateſt length of it, from the Euphrates to the weſtern ocean, amounted to 3000 miles, and the greateſt breadth, from the wall of Antoninus to the pillars of Hercules, 2000 miles. If we travel the length of the ruſſian empire, we ſhall find it to be, from Riga to Anadyrſkoioſtrog, 9684 miles, and thence to the haven of Peter and Paul, in Kamtſhatka, 1750 more. 3. The poſſeſſions of the Romans extended ſomewhat ſhort of 32 degrees of latitude; Ruſſia compriſes 35½. *Gibbon*—Roman empire, 4to. vol. i. p. 33.—But, if we conſider that the dominion of the Romans extended over the fineſt part of the temperate zone (from the 24th to the 56th degree of north latitude), and that the ground in the whole circuit of that territory conſiſted of the moſt fertile and productive countries of three quarters of the world, this ſeeming ſuperiority immediately vaniſhes.

ſome

ſome provinces that bore the name of Ruſſia, without however being a part of the ruſſian empire. Of this ſort was the province of Red Ruſſia in the leſſer Poland, of which only the country of Chelm remained to the Poles; alſo lithuanian Ruſſia in the grand duchy of Lithuania, formerly comprehending within its limits White and Black Ruſſia, partly come back to the ruſſian empire to which it originally belonged, being governed in the twelfth century by ruſſian princes at Polotzk, deſcended from the princes of Kief. It is highly probable that even the whole of Red and Black Ruſſia were formerly hereditary provinces of the ruſſian empire, of which perhaps proofs are ſtill in being among the archives of Ruſſia. Without ſtopping here, however, to diſcuſs what ſort of title Ruſſia may have to any ſuch ſucceſſion, it is but right to mention that we have not anywhere been able to find a ſatisfactory account of the origin of theſe names and their proper ſignification. Perhaps they may have been entirely without any; ariſing from accident, mere arbitrary denominations of certain tracts of country inhabited by Ruſſians. At leaſt this ſuppoſition is warranted by a cuſtom obſerved in remoter times by the ſlavonian nations. Thus, concerning Servia, we know that the illyrico-ſervian empire was antiently called Red Servia; the german Sorbenland, White Servia; and the territory of Servitza, the Black Servia. In like manner, the Crovats, as long as they dwelt in Bohemia, gave

the country the name of Bielo Crobatia, that is, White Croatia. A part of Dalmatia being then ſtyled by them Red Croatia. — Hence we might be led to conclude that the appellations White, Red, and Black Ruſſia, muſt be of great antiquity. In the meantime, it muſt be confeſſed that Mr. Muller, ſo juſtly famous for his reſearches into ruſſian hiſtory, is of a different opinion. As his thoughts on this ſubject contain much information, they deſerve to be noticed here. He ſays: All the ruſſian annals teſtify, that antiently there was but one undivided Ruſſia, which, under that general denomination, extended toward the weſt, nearly upon the Viſtula. The names of Little and White Ruſſia were not heard of till after ſome principalities were taken in the fourteenth century by the lithuanian princes, and in the ſequel incorporated with the kingdom of Poland. What bears the name of Red or Tſchervonian Ruſſia, it is true, received its denomination from the tſhervenſhian towns that form the principal part of it; but White Ruſſia was ſingly and alone thus named by the Poles and Lithuanians, in order to diſtinguiſh it from the reſt of the ruſſian empire; which they ſtyled Great Ruſſia, not ſo much in oppoſition to Little Ruſſia, as in reſpect to the ſpaciouſneſs of its extent. — Ruſſia was much weakened by the defalcation of ſeveral of its principalities as well as by the inroads of the Tartars: but after the grand duke Ivan Vaſſillievitch I. had united the majority of them under his ſole

ſole ſovereignty and thrown off the tartarian yoke, he firſt ſtyled himſelf MONARCH OF ALL RUSSIA; which title was continued till the time of tzar Alexey Mikhailovitch; for the conqueſts made of ſome diſtricts in Little and White Ruſſia, by the grand duke Vaſſilli Ivanovitch and the tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch, were only of particular towns and principalities, whereof ſeveral were in the ſequel recovered by their former maſters. But when tzar Alexey Mikhailovitch, in the year 1654, had taken under his dominion the little ruſſian Kozaks, together with their towns and the whole population of Little Ruſſia, he began to ſtyle himſelf SELF-RULER [AUTOCRATOR] OF GREAT AND LITTLE * RUSSIA. This monarch, in the ſame year, took the town of Smolenſk by force of arms, and returned to Moſco; but prior to his expedition for the conqueſt of White Ruſſia and Lithuania, being indubitably perſuaded that he ſhould reduce the regions formerly raviſhed from Ruſſia to ſubmiſſion, he cauſed to be inſerted in the tzarian titles, the words: OF ALL RED AND LITTLE AND WHITE RUSSIA; the firſt uſe of which appears in the *Univerſal* of the 21ſt of February 1655, as at that time Mohilef, Orſha, Vitepſk, Polotzk, Dunaburg, Boriſſof, Minſk, Vilna, Grodno, &c. together with all their towns and dependencies, were actually conquered. Sweden alone threw

* In teſtimony whereof there is ſtill a decree of this tzar's, bearing date July 1ſt 1654.

obſtacles

obſtacles in his way; while the Poles were making flattering promiſes to elect him to the throne of that kingdom: but the peſtilence that followed, obliged this monarch to abandon his conqueſts. — Hence, however, it is clearly ſeen what we are to underſtand by the term White Ruſſia.

The ruſſian empire received a freſh augmentation at the treaty of peace concluded with the porte the 29th of December 1791; that is to ſay, the whole of the territory of Ochakof on the Bogue, as far as the Dnieſtr, which laſt-mentioned river is now ſettled to be the boundary forever *.

The

* In addition to what has already been ſaid of the extent of the empire, we will juſt give two calculations as made by profeſſor Kraft of the academy of ſciences. By ſome experiments in regard to the table for zones, where the flattening of the ſpheroid amounts to $\frac{1}{100}$, he found that the whole empire, the northern latitude whereof he admits to be 42° 31′ to 78° 30′ including the inland ſeas †, but excluſive of all the bays and gulfs, to have in the frigid zone 67,157 geographical ſquare miles, (fifteen to a degree of the equator,) and in the temperate 263,349; together $\frac{1}{17}$ of the northern hemiſphere, or 330,506 ſquare geographical miles. By this calculation all the general maps of the ruſſian empire then in being were proved to be wrong; and indeed the accuracy of all that have ſince appeared, at leaſt in regard to ſeveral regions, may be very much queſtioned. If we add to this, that ſince the year 1783 Ruſſia has greatly enlarged its territory, at the ſame time that the iſlands of the eaſtern

† Conſequently he gives the empire a greater northern extent than we thought ourſelves authorized to do.

ocean,

The empire has hitherto been conſidered as lying in but two quarters of the globe, namely Europe and Aſia; future geographers may perhaps have to deſcribe its dominions in a third, the continent of America; for the territory there, though probably at preſent but inſignificant, may eaſily be extended and increaſed. Indeed from the forementioned ruſſian eſtabliſhment on the continent of America, and the iſlands already made tributary there, the empire may even now with propriety be ſaid to extend into that quarter of the globe.

Ruſſia, by its magnitude and ſituation, has very various frontiers as well as neighbours. On two ſides, namely, to the north and the eaſt, if we omit the eſtabliſhment on the continent of America, it is ſurrounded by ſeas. On the other ſides it is bounded partly by terra firma, partly by ſeas, and here and there by rivers, namely, to the weſt by Denmark, by Sweden, and by the Baltic; but to the ſouth, by Courland, Poland, Turkey, the Euxine and the Caſpian, by Perſia, China, and various tribes of almoſt ſavage, nomadic, or, in one word, uncivilized nations. Some of theſe borders are capable of enlargement, eſpecially in the nume-

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ocean, between Aſia and America, though they are actually tributary to Ruſſia and conſequently belong to the empire, cannot be accurately laid down and brought into the account, which yet properly ſhould be done; it will then appear that none of the ſtatements hitherto made can be conſidered as complete.

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rous iſlands of the eaſtern ocean, which might eaſily be made tributary, as no other foreign power can lay any well-founded claim to them; again in the north on the continent of America; and among the independent hordes of Aſia, who, beſides, on account of their turbulence, ſometimes deſerve a little correction. — Other frontiers are fixed by treaty, viz.

1. With Denmark, concerning Lapland or Finnmark, in the year 1602.

2. With China and the Mongoles, in 1727. By the careleſſneſs of a ruſſian miniſter, who was not ſufficiently on his guard againſt the cunning Chineſe, the limits were drawn to the diſadvantage of Ruſſia.

3. With Perſia by the treaty of 1732. At preſent the river Terek is regarded in ſome reſpects as the line of limitation.

4. With Poland, by various treaties in 1667, 1672, 1717, 1721, 1773, 1776, 1781, 1793, and not finally adjuſted till 1795.

5. With Sweden, by the treaties of 1721 and 1743. However, the borders are not yet accurately ſettled; for ſeveral iſlands in the river Kymmene, and numbers of bordering boors, belong neither to one nor the other of theſe powers, and therefore the latter live very comfortably in their own way, exempt from all tribute and burdens of every kind.

6. With the Turks, the antient treaties were explained and amended by new ones in the year 1739, and ſtill more in 1774, 1786, and 1791; and

and which we may probably expect to be done again, now that the two empires are come to a proper underſtanding.

7. With Courland the laſt ſettlement was made in 1783, till the final ſurrender of its independence in 1796.

This diverſity of boundaries and neighbours, requires divers means of ſecurity and occaſional defence. Theſe muſt conſiſt either in ſtrong places, or a great force by ſea and land, but both on different footings, according to the territory and to the nation againſt which they are to be employed. In ſome parts large ſhips of the line can only enſure ſafety; in others moderate ſized veſſels, or even little armed boats, may produce the ſame effect. Againſt ſome neighbours, ſtrong forts on the frontiers are kept up; againſt others a wretched wooden wall, or ſtakes drove into the ground, with two or three iron cannon, and a garriſon from eighty to two hundred men, completely anſwer the purpoſe. Againſt the attacks and robberies of uncivilized nations, lines are formed with petty forts or ramparts: ſome of theſe are provided with baſtions of earth; others, properly ſpeaking, have no fortreſs, but conſiſt merely of caſermes and ſtables, built in a quadrangular form, with a watch-tower at two corners *. Where ſecurity requires it, other forms of defence are uſed. Thus the village Raſlomayef-

* Pallas's travels, vol. ii.

ſkaia

ſkaia on the Tobol, between the borders of Orenburg and Siberia, is ſecured from all acceſs by a ſtrong hedge, in ſome places ſtrengthened, for a conſiderable length, by chevaux de frize; but the village Niſhno-Tſchernaſkoi has a fortified wooden *church. Some parts require no defence whatever; for example, the coaſts of the frozen ocean; and the deſart part of the mongolian borders, from the Oby to the Yeniſſei, is entirely unfortified and open.—In ſome places a river forms the boundary; as the Kymmene, before mentioned; in like manner, the Argune towards China; and not unfrequently a vaſt ſteppe, when the limits are not preciſely drawn, with the nomadic and uncivilized neighbours.

From Tchutzkaia zemlia, northwards over Kamtſhatka, the empire borders pretty nearly on America; being, by the lateſt obſervations, only ſeparated from it by a ſtrait of the ſea, no more than one hundred and ſeventy-five engliſh miles in breadth; namely, Behring's ſtraits†. The Tchuktchi have not as yet been ſubjected; probably becauſe it has not been thought worth while to fit out a military expedition for that purpoſe; nevertheleſs that people acknowledges the ruſſian ſovereignty. They have actually for a long time carried on traffic with the Americans that dwell over-againſt them, make uſe of the ſame

* Pallas's Travels, vol. ii. p. 406. 408. 409.

† Which Buſching everywhere calls Cook's ſtraits.

canoes

canoes with them, though they differ greatly from them both in language and dreſs. Beyond that cape, towards America, lie ſeveral iſles, two of which are uninhabited. The main land of America there (if in fact it be not a very large iſland) may be ſeen from this promontory; and there is an american iſland at about the diſtance of two hundred and ten engliſh miles from the poſſeſſions of Ruſſia.

We come now to ſpeak of the uncivilized nations that either belong to the empire, or are juſt without its borders. The latter are by no means dangerous neighbours, but are eaſily kept in awe; or, if they make an attack, are preſently frightened back again. Againſt them the former are made uſe of as a defence. Indeed, it was formerly a hard matter to reſtrain them within bounds; but we have ſeen under the late reign what good regulations, without violent meaſures, will effect.

Thoſe that belong to the empire may indeed cauſe ſome alarms leſt a ſwarm of them ſhould get over the borders, as did actually once happen ſome years ago; but means are uſed for the prevention of this: it is found, however, that ſuch people are moſt eaſily managed and kept to their antient habitations by gentle treatment. Their own chiefs and khans receive titles, dignities, and preſents; and able officers are kept among them as ſpies upon their conduct. Should they happily, by example and encouragement, habituate themſelves to a better form of goverment, it would then be juſt the ſame thing

thing as if an entire nation had been added to the empire. Many of them have already addicted themſelves to agriculture, and other uſeful employments, much more than formerly.—Even the borderers, by the wiſe methods purſued by the ruſſian commanders, are become more ſerviceable to the empire, eſpecially in matters of commerce.

The boundaries in general are ſo diſpoſed, that an attack from regular foes is only poſſible on a few ſides: and againſt theſe, ſufficient means of defence are at all times practicable. A few regular enemies can never be of much conſequence, as Ruſſia always keeps on foot a reſpectable and well-diſciplined army. Beſides, the great poſſeſſions adhering together are ſo defended by the preſent conſtitutions of moſt of the neighbouring ſtates, that Ruſſia has never any need to fear an attack in the heart of the empire, though in former times a foreign enemy may have found it poſſible to penetrate ſo far.

It is ſcarcely neceſſary to ſhew that the empire, from the very nature of it, is capable of progreſſively growing to a greater, even to an aſtoniſhing magnitude, without attempting new conqueſts. It has already been attaining gradually to a high degree of power, particularly in modern times. Yet we are not to imagine (as ſome people not well-verſed in hiſtory are apt to do) that it was formerly a country abſolutely inſignificant, or even quite unknown. In very remote periods, long before

Kazan, Aſtrakhan, Siberia, &c. were conquered, Ruſſia was remarkable both for its power and its magnitude. How often did it not then ſtrike terror into the haughty ſovereigns of Conſtantinople, even while ſurrounded with the magnificence of imperial Greece? Moreover, the Poles, the Swedes, the Hungarians, even the far diſtant French, had kievian princeſſes on their thrones. — Internal diviſions among brethren of the reigning family afterwards, indeed, weakened the empire, inſomuch that it was deluged by a powerful foreign nation. But by its own inherent vigour, without the aid of external ſuccours, it ſhook off the odious yoke, made extenſive conqueſts, and evinced to the world what it was able to perform by its own power alone. Thus it rapidly grew into one of the greateſt monarchies the univerſe had ever beheld. The coloſſus only wanted a ſkilful hand to ſhape it into form: and this it firſt found in Peter the great, and afterwards in Catharine the ſecond. — True, it was the happineſs of that emperor, that the imprudence, or rather the temerity, of Charles XII. contributed much to the rapidity of its advancement; yet the conſequences would have been leſs ſtriking and brilliant, if the internal ſtrength and greatneſs of the empire had not ſo ſignally concurred. Under the empreſs Anna, Ruſſia with all her ſplendid victories, and combined with Auſtria, found it an arduous taſk to put an honourable end to the turkiſh war: an evident token, that a proper uſe was not made of the peculiar greatneſs

and the important reſources of the country. Of all the powers confederated againſt the king of Pruſſia in the ſeven years war, the power of Elizabeth preſſed hardeſt upon him: the conſequences were not adequate to the expence, owing to the events and combinations that happened afterwards; however, the ſtrength of Ruſſia was not then entirely manifeſt. It was diſplayed during the war with the Turks in 1772, to ſo high a degree, as to raiſe the admiration of the world. Though the empreſs at that time maintained a body of troops in Poland, yet ſhe ſtifled at once an inteſtine commotion; and without foreign aid, by her own forces, gained repeated victories over the Turks, conquered provinces, forts, and appeared with fleets that ſpread terror through regions to which the Ruſſians were ſcarcely known by name, annihilated the formidable navy of her enemy, ſurrounded the whole numerous army of the Turks, performed wonders, and concluded a glorious peace. And what great atchievements were not done in the laſt turkiſh war! — Ruſſia, if her forces be properly employed, without the aid of foreign alliance, is fully able to reſiſt the attacks of any invader. Extenſive poſſeſſions, a brave people, excellent products, and conſiderable revenues, render it in all reſpects truly great; as will more plainly appear in the following ſections.

SECTION II.

Climate.

FROM the enormous extent of the ruſſian empire, and its ſituation in the equatorial and meridional degrees before-mentioned, it will naturally be inferred that the temperatures of the atmoſphere muſt be various. It contains many regions that are bleſſed with the pureſt air, and the mildeſt ſky; but a greater number of others where the weather is extremely rude and cold, and many others again where the exhalations from the earth are not of the moſt ſalubrious nature. The parts lying towards the ſouth enjoy a warm and agreeable temperature, in which almoſt all the plants and vegetables of countries ſituated much nearer to the equator flouriſh and abound. Thus, in the region of Tzaritzin, even thoſe of China which moſt delight in warmth, thrive to perfection in the open air, and produce their ſeeds in full maturity. Yet theſe ſouthern diſtricts know nothing of ſuch burning ſands as are found in the ſultry climes of Africa. Others again, in high northern latitudes, though not congealed in everlaſting ice, are yet oppreſſed with ſo ſevere a froſt as to exclude the arts of agriculture. On the whole, therefore, the climate is not exceſſively hot, except at certain ſeaſons in Taurida, ſeldomer and leſs laſting in a few other places; but in many regions it is extremely cold. However,

the one tract of country not only ſupplies the deficiencies of the other; but nature has kindly provided that every climate ſhould be fitted to the wants of its inhabitants, and has adapted them to the temperature of their ſky. High to the north ſhe has diſpenſed no corn, but plenty of moſs, for the animals; and for mankind an infinite variety of berries, of fiſh, and wild fruits. Farther to the ſouth her liberality is diſplayed: beneath a mild and genial atmoſphere ſhe beſtows on the inhabitants a ſuperfluity of the fineſt products.

The remark, that places lying in the ſame degree of north latitude, or having the ſame polar elevation, do not exhibit the ſame temperature of climate, but that as we advance toward the eaſt the cold is always more intenſe, is alſo corroborated by obſervation in the ruſſian empire. The cauſe adduced by ſome reſpectable writers, that the eaſtern regions of Europe and Aſia lie more remote from ſeas, than the weſtern, by no means ſolves the difficulty; ſince many of them lie near enough to the ſea, nearer than the weſtern, nay ſome of them are even ſurrounded by ſeas, and yet are very cold: — on this head I need only mention Kamtſhatka. — *M. Pallas ſeems to have come nearer the truth, by accounting for this phænomenon from the influence of mountains; yet even this hypotheſis is not entirely free from obſcurity and doubt.

* In his travels, vol. iii. p. 272.

In

In the middle and northern regions the winters are very cold, and the days uncommonly ſhort; but the ſummers are ſo much the longer, and the heats are ſometimes great. That the cold, however, attacks the brain, as Buſching pretends, is a miſtaken notion. In many of theſe parts the girls go always bare-headed, and the women wear only thin linen caps; and yet they neither feel headachs nor become lunatic by the practice. Only ſuch as, having been accuſtomed to a warmer country, come to live in a colder, feel the cold, eſpecially at firſt, very ſevere; yet, neither by it, nor (as he elſewhere maintains) by the brandy they have drunk in their youth, do people grow mad. The provinces on the ſhores of the Baltic are ſufficient of themſelves to refute this opinion. In ſevere froſts it is no unuſual thing for men to be frozen, ſo as either to die on the ſpot, or, without ſpeedy aſſiſtance, for the limbs that are frozen to fall off by degrees: but never any one became inſane by it. The wives of the livonian boors even frequently give little potions of brandy, a favourite liquor with them, to their children at the breaſt, as well as to thoſe of larger growth; yet fewer crazy and mad people are found here than in numberleſs other countries. — Whether the cold (likewiſe according to the aſſertion of Mr. Buſching) be the occaſion of certain epidemical diſeaſes, muſt be left undecided. It may perhaps have been obſerved in ſome diſtricts, but never authentically. People from different provinces, to whom the queſ-

tion has been put, knew nothing of epidemical diſeaſes that had ariſen merely from cold. With delicate perſons, eſpecially of the higher claſſes, colds, defluxions, rheums, and coughs, are common enough, not merely during the cold of the winter, but alſo at other ſeaſons of the year: the common people know but little of theſe complaints. Theſe never feel any injury from currents of air, which we call draughts; though perſons of the former deſcription frequently take cold even when they have not ſtirred out of their warm apartments. In ſharp biting froſts, if people are but properly clad, and forbear to ſit down, eſpecially upon the banks of ſnow, which may often coſt them their lives; they find themſelves more healthy than in the moiſt weather of autumn, though ſuch as live in the country are obliged to expoſe themſelves the whole day long in the open air, to the utmoſt force of the cold, in foreſts, on hills and mountains, in the ſtreets, &c. Any ſlight colds they may take, or any obſtructions in the pores, are ſoon remedied by the hot rooms in which they are accuſtomed to ſleep, and ſtill more by the frequent uſe of their univerſally beloved hot-bath. — One ſure proof that in general the climate is not prejudicial to health is the great number of perſons that in all theſe parts attain to a very advanced old age *.

The

* From fourſcore to ninety is an age by no means thought extraordinary; but numbers continue advancing in years from that

The freezing of the rivers happens too in various ways, according to the degree of cold, the quality of the water, the current, and the nature of the * bed. Some carry floating ice, which at length conſolidates; others, on a ſudden froſt, are covered at top with icy particles like gruel, which in a day or two congeals; others again, of a gentle current, are in one night covered with a thin ſcum of ice which gradually increaſes in ſubſtance; while the rivers in

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that period. Among other inſtances that we could adduce from various quarters, we ſhall ſelect one, of a man ſtill living, of the name of Mikhaila Leonof Natſhafka, who was formerly a burgher at Velitſh, and now keeps a krug, or public inn, in the village Belcika, near the old-ruſſian borders, and in the government of Smolenſk. So early as the year 1664, being then a well-grown boy, he was ſent by his parents to ſearch among the ſlain for the body of a relation who had fallen in the battle fought that year between the Ruſſians and the Poles. This old man is ſtill in the full enjoyment of his ſenſes, converſes intelligibly, and walks with his ſtaff daily two or three verſts on foot, for the ſake of exerciſe. — This remark was made in 1792.

* In and about Moſco the rivers freeze about the middle or latter end of November, and break up in March or the beginning of April. The birch-trees come out in May, and ſhed their leaves in September. — About Kurſk all ſorts of fruit are ripe in Auguſt, and the corn is then all got in. Suyef's travels.

In Irkutſk the thermometer, on the 9th of December 1772, ſtood at 254 degrees; notwithſtanding that the Angara there commonly freezes not till towards the end of December, and frequently not till the middle of January; and breaks up at the end of March, or before the middle of April. Georgi's travels, i. 36.

ruſſian Dauria, or the province of Nertſhinſk, differ from all theſe, and exhibit a quite different property: for there the ice firſt forms at the bottom; which is then lifted up by the water, where it remains till the whole river is entirely frozen up; and at times ſo much ice comes gradually in addition to it, that the water can ſcarcely find a free paſſage beneath it. Some derive the cauſe of this either from the quality of the beds of the rivers there, which univerſally conſiſt of chalk-ſtone; or from the frigidity of the ſoil, which all the ſummer through never thaws to a greater depth than two arſhines.

The froſt, and ſtill more the quantity of ſnow in connection with it, is of infinite advantage to the empire, as by that means the land-carriage is inconceivably facilitated. Many provinces could neither procure the neceſſaries of life, nor turn their own products into money, were it not for the froſt and ſnow. No ſooner is the ſledgeway formed, than all the country roads are covered with carriages. In ſeveral diſtricts, maſts, balks, firewood, &c. can only be fetched in the winter, eſpecially from marſhy foreſts. What immenſe quantities of flax, hemp, tobacco, deals, tallow, &c. are brought by ſledgeway from the diſtant provinces of Ruſſia to the ports of the Baltic! One ſingle winter ſo mild as to produce no ſnow, would in many regions put a total ſtop to commerce, as well foreign as domeſtic. In the winter from November 1789 to March 1790, the weather being for the moſt part mild, and but little

ſnow falling, ſeveral provinces ſuffered great injury. Much of their products could not be conveyed to the maritime towns. Great quantities of the proviſion brought for the ſupply of St. Peterſburg was ſo ſpoilt that it was thrown away. In ſeveral towns, both inland and on the ſea-coaſts, there was a real ſcarcity of firing and other neceſſaries: wood that had been ſold at from one to two rubles the fathom, was not now to be had for leſs than double that price. Numbers that were under contracts for the delivery of brandy were very badly off.—Moreover, there are regions where the greater part of the year may properly be called winter, others where the winter laſts but a few weeks; ſome where ſtorms are very frequent, others where they are extremely rare: of the latter ſort are the parts about the frozen ocean *.

From ſeveral phænomena mentioned in the travels of the academicians, one would be tempted to ſup-

* Buſching remarks, that corn ripens in few places above the ſixtieth degree of polar elevation. This however admits of ſome limitation: corn is indeed grown far higher than the ſixtieth degree, though in thoſe parts the huſbandman runs great hazard of ſeeing his hopes entirely defeated by the froſt of one ſingle night, which ſometimes happens in July or Auguſt. For inſtance, this is frequently the caſe at Meſen, which lies in ſixty-five degrees north latitude, where barley is ſown, which comes up finely, but ſeldom ripens. It grows to almoſt the uſual height, and bears large ears; but does not come to maturity above once in twenty or thirty years: however, it is ſown every year for the purpoſe of getting fodder for the cattle. Corn comes from Archangel.

poſe,

poſe, that even the north of Siberia muſt formerly have had a much milder climate, or have undergone a moſt ſtupendous revolution in nature. As a proof of this we may adduce the ſkeletons of elephants and other large animals found within the earth on the ſhores and rivers there. Theſe bones and teeth have been deſcribed by that learned and ingenious traveller M. Pallas. A ſkeleton of this kind, which I have ſeen, was found, among others, ſeveral years ſince on the ſhore of the Irtyſh, ſome fathoms deep in the earth, where the river has waſhed away part of its bank. In all theſe places they are known by the name of mammot's-bones. Great numbers of them have been ſent to Peterſburg, where they may be ſeen in the muſeum of the academy of ſciences; but they are not well put together. If theſe animals lived once where their bones are diſcovered, it is certain that theſe countries muſt formerly have had a very different climate. Did they go thither while alive? What inducement led them? Have they been wafted thither after death? What a flood it muſt have been that carried them! — Or, are they bones of ſea-animals?

A general diviſion of the whole empire may be made into three great regions, in regard to temperature, and the conſequent growth of the productions of nature, viz.

1. The region lying above the 60th deg. and extending to the 78th degree of north lat.

2. The

2. The region lying between the 50th and the 60th degree of north lat.; and,

3. The region which lies to the ſouth of the 50th, and reaches to the 43d degree.

The firſt is the rudeſt and coldeſt. In it are contained the greater part of the governments of Irkutſk, Tobolſk, and Vologda; the entire governments of Archangel, Olonetz, and Vyborg, with part of thoſe of Perme, Novgorod, and St. Peterſburg *. All theſe regions lie in a very cold

* By the obſervations of the academician Euler there are even at St. Peterſburg only two months in which it never ſnows. — In order to characteriſe the weather of the northern region we will give a ſhort extract from the meteorological remarks publiſhed by M. Fries, of the territorial town of Uſtiug Veliki in the government of Vologda. This town lies in 60° 50′ north latitude, and 62° 10′ eaſt longitude from Ferro, 516 miles from the neareſt ſhore of the frozen ocean, and 1002 miles from St. Peterſburg. The mean heat and cold here is: above Reaumur's freezing-point in the month of April — till September; below the freezing-point in the month of October — till March. The mercury in Reaumur's thermometer, in the ſingle month of June alone, falls never below 0, and only in January never riſes above 0. The cold increaſed at times ſo late as in the middle of April to 30 degrees, and the quickſilver may, ſometimes ſo early as November, and again in the firſt days of March, be hammered. In every winter are 120 days, in which the cold is more than 5 degrees; and, of them, 65 days in which it exceeds 10 degrees; yet the ſummer has more hot, than the winter has cold days. The thermometer ſtood, upon an average of ſeveral years, the whole day above 0 on 152 days, and below 0 on 150: conſequently there were 63 days on which it ſtood alternately above

cold climate, having a winter extremely ſevere, eſpecially Siberia.

The ſecond region, in regard of its fertility, may be called the temperate; in one half whereof, that is, from the 55th to the 60th degree, the weather, though pretty ſevere and cold, yet allows the fruits of the field and the orchard to grow. In the other half, namely from the 50th to the 55th degree, the climate is much milder ſtill, affording, beſide the uſual products, others which do not ſucceed in the former. The whole of this large, beautiful, and important region, comprehends the

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above and below 0. The rivers are navigable about the 10th of May. At the end of that month the ſummer-corn is ſown, and about the middle of June the fields are manured for winter-ſowing; the harveſt is commonly in Auguſt. The trees ſhed their leaves ſometimes ſo early as the 10th of Auguſt; but uſually about the 20th.

Uſtiug Veliki lies 15½ degrees more to the north than St. Peterſburg, the quickſilver froze in open air the 4th of November 1786, during a cold of 30½ degrees of Reaumur's thermometer; the 1ſt of December at 40 degrees, it fell the ſame day to 51, and the 7th of December even down to 60. The quickſilver then froze to a ſolid maſs, ſo as to bear beating with a hammer, in a warm room, ſeveral times before any pieces flew off from it. See the obſervations of M. Fries, in Crell's annals, 1787, part x. p. 318, & ſeq. — At Kraſnoyarſk the quickſilver froze at 235 and 254 deg. of de l'Iſle's ſcale. Pallas, tom. iii. p. 419. — In Solykamſk, in 1761 it fell in the thermometer of de l'Iſle quite down to 280 deg. Examen du voyage de M. de la Chappe d'Auteroche, p. 105.

governments

governments of St. Peterſburg, Reval, Riga, Polotzk, Mohilef, Smolenſk, Pſcove, Novgorod, Tver, Yaroſlaf, Koſtroma, Viætka, Permia, Kolhyvane, a good portion of Irkutſk and Ufa, the governments of Moſco, Vladimir, Niſhney-Novgorod, Kazan, Kaluga, Tula, Riazan, Voronetch, Tambof, Penſa, Simbirſk, Kurſk, Orel, Novgorod-Sieverſk, Tſchernigof, and the greater part of Kief, Kharkof, and Saratof.

The third is the hot climate, yielding products, e. g. wine and ſilk, which the two former do not. In this lie Taurida, Ekatarinoſlaf, the major part of Caucauſia, and a part of Kief, Kharkof, Voronetch, Saratof, Kolhyvane, and Irkutſk.

In Aſtrakhan the heat is ſometimes ſo intenſe that the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer is up at 103½, and rain is then ſo rare, that without artificial irrigation all the plants are withered. — Among the fineſt and moſt fertile tracts of the ſouthern diſtricts are the caucaſian territory of the government of Caucaſus and the mountainous part of the province of Taurida. The region about the Terek and the foot of the caucaſian mountains bear the beſt wheat, the choiceſt orchard-fruits, wild and cultivated vine-ſtocks, mulberry-trees, wild olives, figs, cheſnuts, almond and peach trees, ſaffron, &c. — Of the mountainous part of the province of Taurida, M. Pallas, in a late publication, gives ſo animated and delightful a picture that I cannot reſiſt the temptation to inſert a tranſlation of it here, eſpecially as it is not at all known in England.

"One

" One of the mildeſt and moſt fertile regions " of the empire is the beautiful ſemicircular and " amphitheatral vale formed by the tauridan moun- " tains along the ſhores of the Euxine. Theſe " vallies, which are bleſſed with the climate of " Anatolia and the leſſer Aſia, where the winter " is ſcarcely ſenſible, where the primroſes and " ſpring-ſaffron bloom in February and often in " January, and where the oak frequently retains " its foliage the whole winter through, are, in " regard to botany and rural œconomy, the nobleſt " tract in Taurida and perhaps in the whole extent " of the empire. Here on all ſides thrive and " flouriſh in open air the ever-verdant laurel, the " olive-tree, the fig, the lotus, the pomegranate, " and the celtis, which perhaps are the remains of " grecian cultivation; with the manna-bearing " aſh, the turpentine-tree, the tan-bark-tree, the " ſtrawberry-tree from Aſia minor, and many " others. This laſt particularly covers the ſteepeſt " cliffs of the ſhore, and beautifies them in winter " by its perpetual foliage and the red rind of its " thick ſtem. In theſe happy vales the foreſts con- " ſiſt of fruit-trees of every kind, or rather they " form only a large orchard left entirely to itſelf. " On the ſhores of the ſea the caper-buſhes pro- " pagate themſelves ſpontaneouſly; without the aſ- " ſiſtance of art the wild or planted vine-ſtems " climb the loftieſt trees, and, twining with the

" flowery

" flowery five-leaved ivy *, form feſtoons and " hedges. The contraſt of the orchards and the " rich verdure with the beautiful wildneſs preſented " by the adjacent mountains and rocks, which in " ſome places riſe among the clouds, and in others " are fallen in ruins; the natural fountains and " caſcades that agreeably preſent their ruſhing " waters; laſtly, the near view of the ſea, where " the ſight is loſt in the unbounded proſpect: all " theſe beauties together form ſo pittoreſque and " delightful a whole, that even the enraptured " muſe of the poet or the painter would be unable " to conceive a more captivating ſcene. The ſimple " habits and manners of the good-humoured high- " land Tartars who inhabit theſe paradiſaical vales; " their turf-covered cottages, ſome hewn in the " rock on the mountain's ſide, others placed amidſt " the luxuriant foliage of the ſurrounding orchards; " the roving flocks of goats and ſheep clinging to " the declivities of the ſolitary rock; the ſound of " the paſtoral flute, re-echoing its plaintive tones " among the hills — every thing here renews the " image of the golden age, its innocence and ſim- " plicity; every thing contributes to cheriſh the " propenſity to an artleſs, retired, and rural life, " and we for a ſecond time gain a fondneſs for the " abode of mortals, which the horrors of war, the

* Called alſo in England the creeper, or the Virginian or American ivy.

" ſordid

" ſordid purſuit of wealth in great cities, and the " luxury which fills the train of all the ſocial vices, " render ſo ſoon intolerable to the ſincere votaries " of wiſdom *.

" In theſe inchanting vallies, to the benefit of " the empire, which no where, in its whole extent, " poſſeſſes ſo fine a climate, might the uſeful pro- " ducts of Aſia minor, and of the ſouthern parts of " Europe, be made indigenous. The ſuperior kinds " of fruits may be produced here without trouble, " and are for the moſt part ſo already. The beſt " kinds of olive and fig-trees may be cultivated " here; and even the ſeſamum plant never decays. " Orange, lemon, and citron trees, and particularly " the cedrat, the moſt excellent ſpecies of them, " would bear the winter extremely well with a " little care. The vine would be conſtantly im- " proving, if but a judicious ſelection were made of " the ſtocks for planting, if greater attention " were paid to the various effects of the ſoil and

* To the generality of readers it may not be a matter of indifference to learn that the philoſopher from whoſe pen this paſſage proceeds, reſides at preſent, according to his wiſh, in the country the beauties whereof he here paints in ſuch warm and poetical colours. As the health of this famous naturaliſt rendered his living in a warm climate neceſſary, on his requeſt to the late empreſs he obtained not only immediate permiſſion to chooſe for himſelf a place in her dominions, but alſo, on his pitching upon Taurida for that purpoſe, an eſtate in that province, and towards the forming of his eſtabliſhment a preſent of ten thouſand rubles.

" ſituation

"ſituation of the vineyards, and if more care were "had in working the muſt and keeping the wine. "For the uſe of the apothecaries and manufacturers "a number of excellent drugs and dyes might be "produced, which are at preſent brought from the "iſles of the Archipelago, from Greece, from Aſia "minor, and Perſia; ſeveral of them are now ſeen "here growing wild. Likewiſe many hard and "uſeful kinds of wood, eſpecially coloured, fit for "inlaid work, might here be propagated: per-"haps in ſome tracts even the ſugar-cane would "thrive.

"On the whole, the botanical riches of the "mountainous part of the peninſula of Taurida are "ſo great and remarkable, that the number of thoſe "plants alone, which are to be found no where elſe "in the ruſſian empire, amounts to ſeveral hun-"dreds, among which is a conſiderable variety of "ſpecies entirely new *."

If with Mr. Hermann, we divide the empire more accurately by its climates, it falls properly into four regions, each containing the governments as follows:

The VERY COLD region, from 60 to 78 degrees north latitude.] Vyborg, Olonetz, Archangel, the greater part of Irkutſk, Tobolſk, and Vologda, and a part of Perme, Novgorod, and St. Peterſburg.

* Phyſical and topographical picture of Taurida, extracted from the journal of a journey made in 1794, by P. S. Pallas, p. 33—36.

The COLD region, from 55 to 60 degrees north latitude.] Reval, Riga, Polotſk, Pſcove, Tver, Moſko, Yaroſlaf, Vladimir, Koſtroma, Viætka, the greater part of Perme and Kazan, and a part of Irkutſk, Kolhyvan, Ufa, Sinbirſk, Niſhney-Novgorod, Kaluga, and Smolenſk.

The MODERATE region, from 50 to 55 degrees north latitude.] Moghilef, Tchernigof, Orel, Kurſk, Tula, Tambof, Penza, the greater part of Kief, Kharkof, Voronetſh, Riazan, Saratof, Kaluga, Sinbirſk, Ufa, Kolhyvan, and a part of Irkutſk, Kazan, Niſhney-Novgorod, and Smolenſk.

The HOT region, from 43 to 50 degrees north latitude.] Tavrida *, Ekatarinoſlaf, the greater part of

* Tavrida has a very agreeable climate. For almoſt nine months in the year the inhabitants enjoy fine and warm weather, and Nature here requires ſcarcely three months for recruiting her vigour. The ſpring uſually begins with March; and commonly the greateſt heat is from the middle of May to the middle of Auguſt. This is generally ſo violent, that it would be very dangerous but for the wind that blows regularly every day from ten in the morning till ſix in the evening, which make it very ſupportable. Thunder, accompanied by heavy ſhowers of rain, is here alſo not unfrequent, whereby the air is ſeaſonably cooled. September and October are generally the fineſt months. The autumnal weather here firſt appears about the middle of November. The froſt comes in December and January; but it is very moderate, and ſeldom laſts above two or three days. However, it is to be remarked, that the flat part of this country differs from the mountainous in this, that heat and cold are commonly greater in the former, and rain and ſnow more rare. In general

of Caucaſia, and a part of Kief, Kharkof, Voronetſh, Saratof, Ufa, Kolhyvan, and Irkutſk.

Theſe four regions ſo very different in regard of temperature, we muſt bear conſtantly in mind, in ſpeaking of the climate of the ruſſian empire. Hence we ſee that there are governments, which have the climates of two; others, as Kolhyvan, of three; and the government of Irkutſk even of all the four regions. Whatever Nature produces under theſe meridians, Ruſſia either has or may poſſeſs; it may boaſt of advantages to which no other ſingle empire or country of Europe can pretend.

Theſe regions being ſo diverſe, various alſo muſt be their weather, the alternation of ſeaſons, and other phænomena of the atmoſphere. While, in one region, the warm and genial breezes of the ſpring are coming on, in others the ſeverity of winter ſtill prevails; and there are mountains, in the long chains of Ural, and yet more in thoſe of Altay and Sayane, which are never free from ice and ſnow. So likewiſe there are ſeveral promontories, in the frozen ocean, whence as far as the eye can reach, the water is covered with ice

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general through all the diſtricts of Tavrida, a few places upon the Sibaſh excepted, the air is reputed to be very healthy. — About Kurſk, in the Ukraine, all kinds of fruit, arbouſes, melons, and apples, are ripe in Auguſt, and the corn is by that time already cut, and got in. The rivers freeze towards the cloſe of November and in December, and in March are again free from ice. Suyef's travels.

even in the height of ſummer, and rivers which are ſcarcely free from it for two or three months in the year. It may in general be affirmed, that in many diſtricts of the FIRST region there is hardly any ſummer; for the three or four months in which it does not ſnow in ſome diſtricts ſcarcely deſerve that name. However, it is an obſervation, confirmed by repeated experience, that the farther a diſtrict lies towards the eaſt, ſo much is the weather proportionably colder. The fruits, for example, that come to maturity beneath and above the 60th degree north latitude in and round St. Peterſburg, and in the government of Vyborg, are not produced under the ſame latitude in Siberia. Probably the proximity of the mountains, and the cold north winds blowing from the frozen ocean, are partly the cauſe of this difference, to the diſadvantage of the latter. In many of the northernmoſt moraſſes the ice does not diſſolve to above the thickneſs of a quarter of an arſhine. — Even the weather of St. Peterſburg, by reaſon of its ſituation ſo far to the north, is rude enough, and, from its vicinity to the ſea, unſettled and unfriendly. The cold during the winter months is here very intenſe. The winter of 1798 and 1799 was the coldeſt ever known in the memory of man or that is recorded in the regiſters. At Seſtrabek, on the coaſt of the gulf of Finland, within a few miles of St. Peterſburg, the mercury in Reaumur's thermometer was as low as 34 degrees; at St. Peterſburg 32½. A few miles beyond Moſco the ſame thermometer

thermometer was from 22 to 33 degrees during thirty-five ſucceſſive days. In the ſouth of Ruſſia the cold was alſo greater than it was ever known in thoſe regions. At Nikolayef on the Bogue the thermometer was frequently ſo low as 26. The latitude of Nikolayef is about 45 degrees.

A high northern ſituation, in a low plain covered with ſwamps and woods, interſected by a number of large rivers, renders the climate cold, rude, and, in ſome circumſtances, ſingular. The imperial academy of ſciences, from its firſt eſtabliſhment in 1725, has kept regular obſervations of the weather; and the freezing of the Neva has been annually noticed from 1718, together with the day on which the ice broke up. By theſe obſervations it appears that it happens upon an average of one year with another on the 14th of November.

The ſpring has in general much froſt, ſnow, and rain. The month of March, old ſtyle, which muſt be all along underſtood, as it is the ſtyle of the country, is always a winter month, with bright days. According to the average of the obſervations made by the academy during ten years, March has ten bright, eight cloudy days, two days of rain, and eleven of ſnow.

April, during the ſame period of ten years, has upon an average annually eleven bright, eight cloudy, four ſnowy, and ſeven rainy days. In this month the ſwallows appear, the buds of the trees

open, and the vernal flowers are ſeen. —Moſt commonly the ice of the Neva breaks up in April.

May, upon an average of ten years, has thirteen bright, five cloudy, and thirteen rainy days: neither is it entirely without ſnow. It is not unuſual for the laſt half of this month to be raw and boiſterous, whereby vegetation is much checked, and the ſummer ſhortened. But, as it often has days of very ſevere cold, ſo, on the other hand, as in the years 1729, 1749, 1759, 1766, and 1767, the hotteſt days were in the month of May.

The ſummer is moſtly fair and fine. Its longeſt day is eighteen hours and an half; and in the evening twilights, which are uncommonly luminous, it is eaſy to read or write. In general the very ſultry days are but few; and theſe are amply compenſated by the cool evenings, nights, and mornings. Some ſummers, however, are very wet and cold: and, in the country, now and then, they experience nightly froſts.

According to the ten years average taken by Mr. Kraft, the month of June, the nine firſt days whereof belong to the ſpring, has nine bright, eight cloudy, and thirteen rainy days.

July, thirteen bright, four cloudy, and fourteen rainy days. The corn harveſt uſually begins about the 25th of July.

Auguſt has eight bright, ſeven cloudy, and ſixteen rainy days.

The

The autumn has rarely many bright days, but is moſtly cloudy, wet, and boiſterous. Such a fine autumn as that of the year 1789, and in general ſuch a fine year throughout, very ſeldom happens.

On an average of ten years, the month of September, the nine firſt days whereof belong to the ſummer, has only five bright, eight cloudy, and ſixteen rainy days; on one day there was even a fall of ſnow.

October has four bright, nine cloudy, thirteen rainy and ſnowy days.

November is commonly wintry weather throughout. According to the calculation of profeſſor Kraft, on an average of ten years, it has annually five bright, ten cloudy, four rainy, and eleven ſnowy days. In November the Neva is uſually covered with ice.

The winter is always ſevere; and, as the atmoſphere is for the moſt part dry, even in ſnowy weather, it is ſo far advantageous to health, that the feweſt ſickneſſes and deaths of all the year are obſerved to happen in this ſeaſon. Indeed, ſo far from being unwholeſome, this dry cold, if not ſo extreme as to be oppreſſive, gives life and ſpirits both to man and beaſt. Its ſhorteſt day is only five hours and a half; and, if about this time the days be cloudy, though a great light proceeds from the ſnow, yet it is but for a ſhort time that candles can be diſpenſed with. Not only the Neva, but

alſo the vaſt Ladoga lake, the Pelpus, the Cronſtadt gulf, and generally even the gulf of Finland, as far down as the iſlands, are every year covered with ice three quarerts of an engliſh yard in thickneſs.

According to the foregoing remarks of the academician Kraft, on an average of ten years, December, the nine firſt days whereof are to be reckoned to the autumn, has only three bright, nine cloudy, ſixteen ſnowy, and three rainy days.

January has eight bright, eleven cloudy, eleven ſnowy, and two rainy days.

February has eight bright, ſix cloudy, twelve ſnowy, and two rainy days.

By this average then the inhabitants of St. Peterſburg have annually ninety-ſeven bright days.

In like manner, the reſult of the accurate obſervations for ten years on the quantity of rain and ſnow falling at St. Peterſburg, was found to be, that the mean annual duration of rainy and ſnowy weather is forty-two times twenty-four hours, or ſomewhat leſs than the ninth part of the year. From a ten years' obſervation it was ſeen that it rains for one hundred and three days, and ſnows for ſeventy-two; and that, if we divide the year into twelve equal parts, one fourth part is fair weather, one third rainy weather, and one fifth part ſnowy weather. The whole quantity of rain and ſnow water taken together which fell within one half-year, is obſerved to be in the following proportions;

January

January -	0,979	July - -	2,760
February -	0,979	Auguſt -	2,671
March -	0,801	September	3,473
April - -	1,248	October -	2,493
May - - -	1,335	November -	1,513
June - -	3,116	December -	0,079

Total, 22,345 engliſh inches.

The height of the annually falling rain and melted ſnows, dew, hoar-froſt, (not reckoning the the moiſture of cloudy days and hail,) roſe during ſomewhat more than twenty years in which it was obſerved by the academy, annually from 19½ to 26¼ Paris inches; that is, ſo high would the ſurface of the earth have been covered with the falling water, if it had remained where it fell, undiminiſhed by evaporation and the imbibing of the earth. According to another obſervation of Mr. Kraft, the mean number for one year amounts to 20$\frac{11}{12}$ inches. The ſnow-water ſcarcely forms the third part of this quantity. In London the height of the yearly falling water, upon an average, is 18½ inches, in Paris 17 inches, in Berlin 19½ inches, at Abo in Finland 23¾ inches. The ſame learned and induſtrious academician has alſo calculated the height of the falling atmoſpheric water in every month, upon an average of ſeveral years.

	Inches.	Lines.		Inches.	Lines.
January -	0	11	July - -	2	7
February -	0	11	Auguſt -	2	6
March -	0	9	September	3	3
April -	1	2	October -	2	4
May - -	1	3	November	1	5
June - -	1	11	December	0	11

September

September is therefore the wetteſt, as March is the drieſt month.

The cold and its effects are here very remarkable. There are annually from one hundred and fifty to one hundred and ninety days of froſt, the ſeverity and continuance of which freeze the ground every winter from two to two and a half, and ſometimes even three feet deep. The ice of the Neva is from twenty-four to thirty-ſix, but generally twenty-eight inches thick. It is curious to obſerve, that, though this thickneſs of the ice is formed by the ſheets of ice lying horizontally on one another, yet the huge blocks of it that are cut out for filling the ice-cellars, on being left expoſed to the ſun, fall to pieces in perpendicular ſpiculæ, each of the thickneſs of one's little finger. So likewiſe in the ſpring, by preſſing on a walking-ſtick, while the ice is ſtill of its primitive thickneſs, the ſtick will go through, becauſe it puſhes down one or more of theſe ſpiculæ from their connection with the reſt.

The covering of the Neva with ice, and the breaking up of it, are remarkable phænomena. When the ice is ſetting in, as it is called, ſmall detached flakes of ice are ſeen floating down the current, which ſoon grow into large fields, and acquire ſo great a momentum, that the bridges muſt be haſtily taken aſunder, to prevent their being carried away by the ice, a diſaſter which has happened more than once. Theſe large plains

of

of ice continue for a day or two, paſſing with the current, while the boats are ſeen rowing between them; till all at once the floating ice ſtops, either by the gulf being already cloſed below, or the flakes of ice freezing together: when immediately foot-paſſengers, who have been waiting on the ſhores for this happy moment, go over in all ſafety. Nothing is more common than to ſee boats croſſing the river, and, in two hours afterwards, to behold hundreds of people going over on foot.

No leſs rapid is the departure of the ice. In the ſpring, the firſt indication of this approaching event, is the ſtanding of the ſnow-water on the ice; then the ice becomes more porous, or divides into ſpiculæ, lets the water through, and becomes of a blackiſh colour. At length it parts, while the roads that have been well trod during the winter ſtill remain; ſo that often foot-paſſengers are ſeen on theſe roads, and between them and the floating ſheets of ice, boats in great numbers paſſing and repaſſing. By the force of the current, and ſhocks received from the floating ice, at length the roads give way; the ice continues to fall down with the ſtream for a day or two to the gulf, and the whole river is clear. A week or a fortnight after this, the ice of the Ladoga comes down; which, according as the wind may happen to be, continues a couple or more days, ſometimes as many weeks, and renders the atmoſphere uncommonly chill.

The

The ice and the cold are of ſervice to the inhabitants in various ways. Diſtances are much ſhortened by their means, inaſmuch as people, horſes, and carriages of all ſorts, and of ever ſo great burden, can croſs the Neva, and the other rivers, lakes, and canals, in all places and directions: and the Cronſtadt gulf ſupplies, in ſome meaſure, the want of navigation during the winter, by the tranſport of commodities of every denomination over the ice. As ice-cellars here are a neceſſary of life, for keeping proviſions of all kinds during the ſummer, ſo every houſe in every quarter of the town is provided with one of them, to be filled with large blocks cut out of the river. This operation generally takes place about the beginning of February. The ice alſo promotes the pleaſure of the inhabitants by giving them an opportunity for the diverſion of ſledge and horſe-racing, and for that of the ice-hills ſo much admired by the populace, and of which I ſhall ſpeak more at large hereafter. The weight of theſe ice-hills, together with that of a multitude ſometimes of five thouſand or ſix thouſand perſons ſtanding about them on holidays, give the ſpectator a ſurpriſing idea of the ſtrength and ſolidity of the ice.

What may be executed in ice was ſhewn by the Ice Palace which the empreſs Anna cauſed to be built on the bank of the Neva in 1740. It was conſtructed of huge quadrats of ice hewn in the manner of free-ſtone. The edifice was fifty-

two

two feet in length, ſixteen in breadth, and twenty in height. The walls were three feet thick. In the ſeveral apartments were tables, chairs, beds, and all kinds of houſehold furniture of ice. In front of the palace, beſides pyramids and ſtatues, ſtood ſix cannons carrying balls of ſix pounds weight, and two mortars, of ice. From one of the former, as a trial, an iron ball with only a quarter of a pound of powder, was fired off. The ball went through a two-inch board at ſixty paces from the mouth of the cannon; and the piece of ice artillery, with its carriage, remained uninjured by the exploſion. The illumination of the ice palace at night had an aſtoniſhingly grand effect.

That the reader may be able to judge whether the climate here has become more ſevere or more mild, in a period of ſixty years, or whether it has continued the ſame, I will ſubjoin the meteorological table from the works of the academy of ſciences; but, for brevity's ſake, take only from five to five years.

Years.

Years.	Reaumur's thermometer. Greateſt heat.	Greateſt cold.	Rain and ſnow days.	Ice broke up, earlieſt and lateſt.	Standing of the ice, earlieſt and lateſt.
From 1726 to 1730 inclu.	Not obſerved.		47	Mar. 27. Apr. 14.	
1731 to 1735.	Not obſerved.		35	Mar. 26. Apr. 24.	
1736 to 1740.		21 deg.	38	Mar. 25. Apr. 26.	Oct. 24. Nov. 14.
1741 to 1745.	21 deg.	22			
1746 to 1750.	27	22		Mar. 25. Apr. 25.	Oct. 23. Nov. 20.
1751 to 1755.	24	22		Mar. 26. Apr. 27.	Nov. 7. Nov. 20.
1756 to 1760.	22½	33		Mar. 27. Apr. 21.	Nov. 4. Nov. 19.
1761 to 1765.	22	27		Mar. 28. Apr. 23.	Nov. 8. Nov. 23.
1766 to 1770.	21	33	73	Apr. 1. Apr. 15.	Oct. 20. Dec. 1.
1771 to 1775.	21½	28½	166	Apr. 5. Apr. 19.	Oct. 31. Nov. 12.
1776 to 1780.	22	32	182	Mar. 31. Apr. 19.	Nov. 1. Nov. 21.
1781 to 1785.	22	30	85	Apr. 7. Apr. 22.	Nov. 6. Nov. 27.
1786.	23	23	185	Apr. 10.	Oct. 26.
1787.	25 1/10	25 1/10	215	Apr. 13.	Nov. 14.
1788.	26¼	24½	183	Apr. 9.	Nov. 6.
1789.	24	25½	138	Apr. 19.	Nov. 14.

The

The height of the barometer during this time was never higher than $30\frac{9}{100}$, and never lower than $26\frac{9}{100}$ inches.

The Neva never broke up before the 25th of March, and never later than the 27th of April. The earlieſt ſtanding of the ice was the 20th of October, and the lateſt the 1ſt of December. Its ſtanding and breaking up determines our ſummer and winter.

On the breaking up of the ice, when the river is ſo far open as to be navigable for boats, the event is announced to the town by the firing of three cannons from the fortreſs. Upon this the ſurveyor of the city-wharfs goes in a barge with the city-flag flying, accompanied by a number of other barges, to the fortreſs, and ſalutes it with ſeven guns, on which the fortreſs returns the ſalute with five. From the fortreſs he then proceeds to the imperial winter-palace, where, on being come near the ſhore, he again makes another diſcharge of cannon, which is followed by three cheers from the crew, repeated by the companies of the numerous barges. This done, they all return in proceſſion to the place from whence they came. Previous to this ceremony, no boat may dare to ſhew itſelf on the Neva; but from that moment any one may paſs upon it that will: and ſo long as the Neva continues open, the riſing and ſetting of the ſun are noticed by a gun from

the fortreſs. But this is diſcontinued during all the time that the Neva is covered with ice.

The ſevere cold here has not that violent benumbing effect either on man or beaſt as people in ſouthern climates might imagine. This ſeems to be principally founded on the dry quality of the air during the froſt, and perhaps in ſome meaſure may be owing to habit, by which both men and the inferior animals are hardened to the climate. However this be, from the dryneſs of the atmoſphere, foreigners, according to the univerſal teſtimony of them all, ſuffer much leſs from the cold, than they do from leſs degrees of it in other countries. The drivers and their horſes, from being ſeaſoned to the cold, feel little or no inconveniency in purſuing their employment through the ſtreets of the town and along the roads, though the beards of the former and the muzzles of the latter are covered with hoar-froſt and little icicles from the congelation of their breath; and in the ſevereſt colds they travel all day without receiving any detriment. Nay, even in from twenty to twenty-four degrees of Reaumur, women will ſtand rincing the linen through holes in the ice, four, five, or ſix hours together, often barefoot, with their hands dipping in the water all the while, and their draggled petticoats ſtiff with ice.

The heavy gales of wind which prevail in theſe parts, and more eſpecially in the gulf of Finland,

have frequently occaſioned much diſtreſs, by the ſwelling of the Neva, and the conſequent calamitous inundation of the city. However, it is conſoling to find, that from the repeated obſervations which have been made, theſe inundations are no longer ſo dreadful as formerly, becauſe the overflowing of the river to about the height of ſix feet above its ordinary level, which formerly uſed to lay the whole town under water, does not any more produce that effect, except on the loweſt quarters of it; a circumſtance ariſing hence, among other cauſes, that, by the perpetual increaſe of buildings, the ground is become gradually higher. — The firſt inundation we know of happened in the year 1691, an account of which is given by Weber, the miniſter from the elector of Hanover, from the report of ſome fiſhermen who lived at Nienſhantz, at that time a ſwediſh redoubt on the Neva. About this period, it is pretended, the water uſed to riſe every five years. As ſoon as the inhabitants of the parts adjacent perceived the ſtorm coming on with unuſual vehemence, which, from ſad experience, they knew to be the forerunner of one of theſe inundations, they immediately took their huts to pieces, tied the balks of them together in the form of a float, faſtened them to the topmoſt branches of the higheſt trees, and ran as faſt as they could to the Duderhof-hills, fifteen verſts from their place of abode, where they remained till the water had ſubſided. — From various obſervations made on this ſubject, the following

 concluſions

concluſions have been drawn: the higheſt ſwells, namely, above ſix feet high, uſually happened in the four laſt months of the year. Snow or rain have never had any remarkable effect upon them. The accumulation of the ice at the mouth of the Neva often cauſes ſome floodings; but the principal cauſes of the overflowings of this river are the violent ſtorms and winds from the ſouth-weſt, or weſt, or north-weſt, which commonly are prevalent towards the autumnal equinox, and the elevation of the water is always in proportion with the violence and duration of theſe winds. In a word, the circumſtances that moſtly contribute to make the Neva overflow, are, if at the time of the autumnal equinox, three or four days before or after the full moon or new moon, when ſhe is near her perigæum, a vehement north-weſt wind drives the water of the north ſea during the flood and ebb into the Baltic, and at the ſame time with it or ſuddenly after it a ſouth-weſt wind blows over the Baltic or the gulf of Finland. All theſe circumſtances united, for example, at the great inundation in 1777. It happened two days before the autumnal equinox, four before the full moon, two after its tranſit through the perigæum, and with a ſtorm from the ſouth-weſt, previous to which there had been ſtrong weſt winds in the north ſea, and vehement north winds at the mouth of the Baltic. — The moſt memorable of theſe floods, of which we have any account, were the following: in 1715, which, though the day is not noticed, yet went

went over almoſt all the bulwarks. In 1721, the 5th of November exactly at the full of the moon. In 1723, ſome day of October, alſo at full moon, when the flood roſe three inches higher than in 1721. In 1725, the 16th of November. In 1726, the 12th of November, the day after full moon, from eight o'clock in the morning till mid-day, when the water roſe to three and a half archines above its ordinary level, and one fourth and a half or eight decimal inches higher than in 1721. In 1727, the 21ſt of September. In 1728, the 3d of Auguſt and 3d of November. In 1729, the 3d and the 12th of October, the day after the new moon, about ten o'clock in the morning, with a violent ſtorm from the ſea. In 1732, the 15th of September. In 1733, the 6th of September, the 8th and 31ſt of October, and the 12th of December. In 1735, the 26th of February; in the ſame year again in the night between the 9th and 10th of October, with a ſtorm from the north-weſt which held the ſame courſe till noon, ſo that the overflowing water, by about eight o'clock, had deluged every quarter of Peterſburg to the height of an ell, and did not abate till afternoon. In 1740, the 12th of September, the day of the equinox, when the flood roſe two arſhines and three verſhoks above the bed of the river. In 1752, the 22d of October, with a flying ſtorm, from the ſouth-weſt, verging to the weſt, which about ten at night ſo raiſed the water, that it came nine feet and an half above its uſual

ſtation, and inundated all the iſlands and the ſeveral quarters of the town (the Stickhof and the part about the Neſkoi monaſtery excepted) with tremendous violence, and cauſing great damage to the inhabitants; but preſently after midnight it ſubſided with equal rapidity. At this flood it was very remarkable, that, on the 25th of October, with a ſtrong gale from the S. S. W. the water, which had been pretty high in the neareſt ſtreets, ſwelled on the 26th with a ſouth-weſt wind ſo as to overflow the whole city, yet foraſmuch as the violence of the ſtorm turned in time to the north, overflowed by one arſhine lower than the former day; and, laſtly, that, on the 28th in the afternoon, after the ſtream had returned on the 27th to its ordinary channel, a new flood, almoſt without wind, ſucceeded, which did again much damage on the Vaſſilly oſtrof, and probably was occaſioned by ſtorms at ſea which had compreſſed the waters of the gulf of Finland. The laſt, and one of the moſt deſtructive inundations, was that in the autumn of the year 1777, and which in ſome reſpects exceeded all the foregoing, as it continued the whole night from the 9th to the 10th of September (therefore three days after the moon was at the full) with an uncommonly low ſtate of the barometer; a violent ſouth-weſt and afterwards weſterly wind raging all the while, which forced the ſtream at five in the morning over its banks, and laid all Peterſburg under water in many parts above two ells, but ſpent the moſt of its fury on the Vaſilly

Vaſilly oſtrof and what is called the Peterſburg-ſide, waſhing away fences, bridges, and ſuch houſes as were moſt expoſed to the ſea, forcing up whole acres of foreſt trees by the roots, tranſporting yachts, galliots, and heavy loaded barks to a great diſtance on the land, and daſhing others to pieces, and certainly would have raged with greater fury, and have committed far more havoc, had not the tempeſt, towards eight o'clock, when the flood was riſen to more than ten feet above the common level of the river, and upwards of a foot and a half higher than in 1752, veered to the north-weſtward and cauſed the decline of the water, which about noon was well-nigh retired from the ſtreets. Were the Baltic ſubject to a conſiderable flux and reflux, the inundations of Peterſburg would be incomparably more terrible, and in all probability not much inferior to the remarkable ſpring-tide at Briſtol, which often, in particular circumſtances, increaſes, to fifty, or even to ſixty feet. However it is poſſible that ſtorms prevailing in the north ſea during the time of the ſpring-tides, which impel together an extraordinary quantity of water into the Baltic, may remotely contribute to the inundations that happen at St. Peterſburg, when the winds that act to that end combine with theſe circumſtances. — Leſs conſiderable floodings of the Neva are not unfrequent in autumn, riſing to the height of from five to ſeven feet, and have been remarked to happen ten times only ſince 1752; as, in 1756, the 29th of Sep-

tember, with a ſtorm from the weſt, to ſeven feet three inches engliſh meaſure; in 1757, the 16th of October, with a ſtorm from the ſouth-weſt, to the height of ſix feet two inches; in 1762, the 28th of October, with a ſouth-weſt wind, five feet ten inches; in 1763, the 8th of October, with a ſouth-weſt wind, five feet four inches; in 1764, from the 6th to the 24th of November, ſeven feet four inches; in 1765, the 16th of November, in a perfect calm, five feet ſix inches; in 1772, the 31ſt of December, with a ſouth-weſt gale, five feet two inches.

The aurora borealis is very frequent, and not uncommonly makes its appearance with extremely vivid white corruſcations of light. The year in general produces from twenty to thirty diſplays of thoſe inexplicable phænomena: ſometimes they reckon forty; but in 1762 there were only two, and in 1731 four exhibitions of the northern lights.

Storms of thunder and lightning are neither numerous, violent, nor laſting. In 1732 there were only two; in 1750 but three; though annually they may be computed at from ſix to eighteen. At times, however, they do conſiderable damage. Therefore the tower of Peter's church, which was deprived of its ſpire by lightning, the palaces of Gatſhina and Peterhof are provided with conductors, the former on the principles of M. Alb. Euler, of our academy; the two latter were placed under the directions of prof. Kohlreif.

No

No winds are particularly predominant here, though in one year this, and in another that, is moſt frequent. According to the obſervations kept ſince 1725, there are annually from ten to ſixteen tempeſts. Of theſe the moſt injurious to navigation are thoſe that come from the eaſt, becauſe they occaſion the water of the Cronſtadt gulf to be ſo low that no ſhips of burden can come up; the weſtern tempeſts, as before remarked, are more prejudicial to the city, by cauſing a ſwell of the Neva, and at times inundations.

Hoar-froſts are common, covering and ornamenting the leafleſs branches of the trees, in the winter months, with their extremely beautiful, ſparkling, white, icy cryſtallizations. It but ſeldom hails; not above ſix times in the year — and the hail-ſtones are always ſmall.

The ſudden tranſitions of the air to different temperatures have often been mentioned as remarkable by travellers, with great juſtice. Thus, at Peterſburg, on the 12th of February 1794, they had 13 degrees of froſt; on the 13th, 2 degrees of thaw; the 14th, froſt again; and on the 15th, 19 degrees of froſt, by Reaumur's thermometer.

In the SECOND region the ſummer is indeed likewiſe in many parts ſhort; yet in moſt of them ſo warm, and the days ſo long, that the fruits of the earth uſually come to perfect maturity in a much ſhorter ſpace of time than elſewhere. The winter too, in this region, particularly in the governments

of Irkutſk, Tobolſk, Perme, Viætka, &c. is for the moſt part very ſevere.

In the THIRD region, there are very extenſive diſtricts; for inſtance, in the governments of Irkutſk, Kolhyvane, and Ufa, where the winter is alſo long and cold. This, however, ariſes more from the very lofty mountains with which theſe diſtricts abound. But the governments in the european diviſion of Ruſſia that lie under this meridian, moſtly enjoy a ſhort and tolerably temperate winter, and a fine warm ſummer *.

In the FOURTH region the winter is ſhort, and (though in ſome parts of the governments of Irkutſk and Kolhyvane, cold enough) the ſummer warm, often hot, and in many parts very dry †.

The

* In and about Moſko, e. gr. the rivers freeze over in the middle or towards the latter end of November, old ſtyle; and break up in March or the beginning of April. The buds of the birch-trees expand in May, and ſhed their leaves in September. — The river Ural uſually flows, near Gurief, free from ice about the beginning of March.

† M. Falk writes as follows concerning the diſtrict circumjacent to the Terek: "The ſpring is ſhort and very pleaſant; "the ſummer hot, with frequent rains and ſtorms; the autumn "ſhort and dry; the winter ſhort, clear, and rude." And, of the parts about the Irtiſh: "The climate of the lower region of the "Irtiſh, on account of its eaſtern, and partly northern ſituation, "is very ſevere. The winter is continually keen. The ſum-"mer, for a great part of it, has ſuch a foggy atmoſphere, that "we get but a very ſmall horizon, and I can frequently look "ſtedfaſtly at the dim orb of the ſun with my naked eye, as we "do

The immenſe territory of this empire likewiſe naturally forms itſelf into two grand diviſions, by the vaſt Ural chain of mountains interſecting it from north to ſouth; theſe diviſions are very unequal, both as to dimenſions and quality. That on the weſtward, is proper or european Ruſſia; and that lying to the eaſt, aſiatic Ruſſia, or Siberia.

" do at the moon. The ſpring and the autumn are moſtly " bright, but are ſubject to very rapid tranſitions from pretty " warm to biting cold. Falls of ſnow are not rare in May and " September; and, July only excepted, no month in the year " is ſecure from night froſts. But, in ſpring, here, as in the " quite ſouthern and middle Siberia, every thing comes forward " with amazing rapidity." P. 258. — In Omſk, where the Om falls into the Irtiſh, the cold, in 1770, was from 151 to 213 degrees of de l'Iſle. In January 1771, the leaſt cold 160, the greateſt 200 degrees. In February from 160 to 205. March the 12th it was at 190, and the 27th at 140 degrees. The Irtiſh here breaks up in March, uſually between the 10th and the 20th. In Kiſſiar, and about the whole of the Terek (the moſt ſouthern diſtricts of the ruſſian empire), the S. S. E. and S. winds, from the mountains, are very drying and cold. From 1768 to 1773 the greateſt heat here according to de l'Iſle's thermometer, was 97 degrees, and the greateſt cold 191½ degrees. On the 9th of November 1770, a ſmall ſhock of an earthquake was felt there. Guldenſtædt, part i. p. 177. — In Irkutſk, the 9th of December 1772, the thermometer ſtood at 254 degrees, and the quickſilver conſolidated in it. Georgi, travels, part i. p. 36.

The Angara there commonly does not freeze till towards the end of December; frequently not till the middle of January, and is already open again by about the cloſe of March, or at fartheſt the firſt days in April.

The

the longer. On the ſhorteſt day, the 10th of December, old ſtyle,

	the ſun riſes,		and ſets,	
In Aſtrakhan, about	48 min. after	7.	12 min. after	4.
Kief, - - -	7	8.	53	3.
Moſco, - -	37	8.	23	3.
Riga, - - -	47	8.	13	3.
Tobolſk, - -	56	8.	4	3.
St. Peterſburg,	15	9.	45	2.
Archangel, -	24	10.	36	1.

SECTION III.

Nature and quality of the ground.

THE quality of the ſoil, in this enormous empire, as may well be ſuppoſed, is extremely various. There are entire, and they very extenſive governments, that are full of mountains: but others, in ſtill greater number, that conſiſt of vaſt ſteppes and plains, ſome of which are inexplorable to the eye.

I ſhall commence this head with a few general remarks made by that diligent and accurate ſurveyor, capt. Pleſchéyéf: "Ruſſia (ſays he) is divided by nature into two great parts by a range of mountains called Ural, which form one continued uninterrupted barrier acroſs the whole breadth of it, dividing Siberia from the reſt of Ruſſia.

"That part of Ruſſia which lies on this ſide the Ural mountains preſents a vaſt extended plain verg-

ing towards the weſt by an eaſy gradation. This plain, from its prodigious extent, has a great variety of climates, ſoils, and products. The northern part of it is very woody, marſhy, but little capable of cultivation, and has a ſenſible declenſion towards the white ſea and the frozen ocean. The other part of this extenſive plain includes the whole diſtrict along the river Volga, as far as the deſerts reaching by the Caſpian and the ſea of Azof, conſtituting the fineſt part of Ruſſia, which in general is rich and fertile, having more arable and meadow land, than foreſts, ſwamps, or barren deſerts.

"The moſt remarkable, for ſuperior quality and flavour of every kind of fruit and other productions of the earth, is that part which extends towards Voronetch, Tamboſ, Penza, and Sinbirſk, as far as the deſerts. It everywhere abounds in an admirably rich ſoil, conſiſting of a black mould, ſtrongly impregnated with ſaltpetre. But that part which commences between the ſea of Azof and the Caſpian, and extending near the ſhores of the latter, runs between the Volga and the Ural, and then ſtretching as far as the river Emba, is nothing but a deſert, level, arid, high, ſterile, and full of ſaline lakes.

"The part lying on the other ſide of the Ural mountains, known by the name of Siberia, is a flat tract of land of conſiderable extent, declining imperceptibly towards the frozen ocean, and by equally gentle

gentle gradations riſing towards the ſouth; where at laſt it forms a great chain of mountains, making the boundary of Ruſſia on the ſide of China. Between the two rivers Oby and Irtiſh, and the Altay mountains, runs a very extenſive plain, called the Barabinſkaia ſteppe, or the deſerts of Baraba, the northern part whereof is excellently adapted to agriculture; but the ſouthern, on the contrary, is a barren deſert, full of ſands and marſhes. The country between the rivers Oby and Yeniſſey conſiſts more of woodland than of open field; and the other ſide of the Yeniſſey is entirely covered with impervious woods, as far as the lake Baikal; but the ſoil is everywhere fruitful: and wherever the natives have been at the pains of clearing and draining the grounds, it proves to be rich, and highly fit for cultivation. The parts beyond the Baikal are ſurrounded by ridges of high ſtony mountains. Proceeding farther on towards the eaſt, the climate of Siberia becomes gradually more and more ſevere, the ſummer ſhortens, the winter grows longer, and the froſts are more intenſe.

"In ſuch temperature of climate, the greater part of Siberia, that is, the middle and ſouthern latitudes of it, as far as the river Lena, is extremely fertile and fit for every kind of produce; but the northern and eaſtern parts, being encumbered with wood, are deprived of this advantage, being unfit both for paſturage and culture. The whole of this part, as far as the 60th degree of north latitude and

to

to the frozen ocean, is full of bogs and moraſſes covered with moſs, which would be abſolutely impaſſable, did not the ice, which never thaws deeper than ſeven inches, remain entire beneath it."

Face of the country.

In this particular a ſtill greater diverſity is obſervable than in climate. Here are delightful and charming regions, where Nature ſeems to have diſpenſed her gifts of every kind with an unſparing hand *; while towards others ſhe has acted ſo like a ſtepmother that all appears deſert and gloomy. We muſt not judge of the country at large from either the one or the other of theſe appearances. If, however, we were to divide the ground and ſoil into claſſes, it might be done in ſomething of the following manner, yet without particular regard to the ſeveral kinds of earth and ſtrata.

Arable land.

Under this head we muſt reckon various tracts of land, eſpecially, 1. thoſe that are kept in conſtant cultivation and tillage, ſuch as are everywhere ſeen in Great and Little Ruſſia, in the provinces bordering on the Baltic, and many others. 2. Such as

* And yet numbers of foreigners ſtill adhere to the fooliſh notion that Ruſſia is entirely a rude country, and has not a trace to ſhew of beautiful Nature.

are only uſed at times, and left quiet for a great length of time. In ſome regions, for inſtance, in Little Ruſſia, about the Don *, &c. where they are looked upon as ſteppes, which if merely ploughed and then ſown, would be productive; in others, for example, in Livonia, Eſthonia, and Ingria, where they are rendered fertile by fire, and are called by the countrymen buſh-lands †. On ſuch parcels of ground, which are either allotted into particular poſſeſſions, or have no proper owner, villages might be gradually erected. In uninhabited diſtricts theſe tracts are moſt frequent. 3. Thoſe that are proper for agriculture, but lie totally unemployed: they wait only for induſtrious hands. There are ſtill plenty of theſe vaſt tracts, where millions of men might find work and profit, eſpecially in fruitful ſteppes, and in numberleſs large foreſts.

The fertility of all theſe tracts is very different according to the quality of the ſoil. In Livonia and Eſthonia, from good fields they reap eight, and in ſucceſsful years from ten to twelve fold; from indifferent ground about only three, but from better at times ſixteen or even more than twenty fold. The harveſts about the Don are commonly ten fold; but towards Tomſk on the Tſhumuſh, and in the

* The Don kozak takes, in whatever part of the ſteppe he chooſes, a piece fit for cultivation, and beſtows his labour upon it as long as he thinks proper, or as long as its viſible fertility will amply reward his labour.

† See Hupel Liefl. and Eſthl. vol. ii.

whole

whole region between the Oby and the Tom, many fields afford an increaſe of twenty-five to thirty-fold *; and at Kraſnoyarſk the failure of a crop was never heard of: of winter-corn they reap eight of barley twelve, and of oats twenty-fold †.

In Little Ruſſia, on the Don, and in many other places, the fields are never manured, only ploughed once, juſt to turn up the earth, afterwards harrowed, and then ſown: more culture, eſpecially dunging, would puſh the corn up too luxuriantly or parch it, and ſo hurt the harveſt; as the ſoil is ſufficiently fertile of itſelf. Of equal goodneſs is the ground in great part of Siberia: for example, on the Samara; on the Ufa in the country of the Baſhkirs; here and there in the Baraba, or the barabinian ſteppe; alſo on the Kama, whence a great quantity of corn is ſent to the northern cornleſs dwelling places on the Dvina and Petſhora. In like manner too in the government of Iſetſk the ſoil generally conſiſts of a black earth to the depth of an ell, conſequently is proper for tillage, for meadow-land, and garden-ground. On the Oby near Barnaul, the black earth does not indeed go very deep, but the marly clay ‡ that lies under it, fertilizes it ſo much as to make it, in ſome places, yield plentiful harveſts,

* Pallas, vol. ii. p. 650 & ſeq. † Ibid. vol. iii. p. 6.

‡ A dark-grey earth, about a foot deep, beneath which runs a layer of clay, and is held in many places to be fine arable land.

without manuring, for twenty years * ſucceſſively. At Kraſnoyarſk, the fields will bear no manure whatever, and yet continue fruitful for ten or fifteen years, if only ſuffered to lie fallow every third year †. When the fertility ceaſes, the boor takes a freſh piece from the ſteppe. On the Selenga, in the diſtrict of Selenghinſk, the fields are hilly, and yet will bear no manure, as it is found on repeated trial to ſpoil the corn ‡.

Meadows.

Theſe are in an abundance not to be deſcribed; though here and there a diſtrict may be in want of them: but regularly eſtabliſhed farms on account of the long winters, require a great ſupply of hay. At the ſame time there are large tracts of country, where the meadows (which in many places are called hay-crops, and when they are overflowed by ſome river every ſpring, luchten) are not uſed as ſuch at all, either becauſe the people want no hay, or becauſe from lazineſs they do not cut it, but oblige their cattle throughout the winter to ſeek a poor nouriſhment on the paſture grounds, and ſometimes even under the ſnow.

Hence it follows, that artificial meads, as not deemed neceſſary, are unuſual. Where a want of them is ſeen, there is commonly a deficiency in land fit for

* Pallas, vol. ii. p. 641. † Ibid. vol. iii. p. 6.

‡ Ibid. p. 168.

that purpoſe *, or the people chooſe rather to turn it into arable. However, ſome ſteppes produce the beſt meadow-graſs for provender, and yield ſeed for making artificial meadows; ſuch as ſain-foin, the alpine hedyſarium, clover, various kinds of artemiſia, pulſe, ſtarflower plants †, and fine graſſes that will bear any climate.

All the meadows may be reduced to theſe four kinds: 1. Fine productive meads that have a good black, but ſomewhat moiſt ſoil: theſe yield the greateſt crops of hay; to them belong the luchten. 2. Dry, whereof the ſoil is fit for agriculture, and at times is ſo employed; they commonly yield a ſhort but very nutritious hay. 3. Watery and marſhy; theſe do not produce the beſt, but give a very ſerviceable hay in caſes of ſcarcity in parching ſummers and dry places. 4. Fat ſteppes, where the graſs in ſome parts grows to the height of a man: they are ſeldom mown.

Numbers of watery-meadows might be much improved by draining, and where the moſs impedes the growth of graſs, by cultivation; but theſe works are rarely undertaken; only ſometimes a careful landlord enlarges his meadows by clearing the bruſhwood, or by adding a freſh piece to them from the foreſt; but it is generally thought unneceſſary,

* Sometimes alſo a want of people or of time, but moſt frequently lazineſs, is the reaſon that the increaſe of meadows is neglected.

† Pallas, vol. ii. p. 75.

or at leaſt very difficult, to make them level *; and therefore many meadow-lands have more the appearance of a deſert. — In diſtricts where the graſs is bad, rank, and acrid, the horſes and cows are gradually accuſtomed to it, and eat it from hunger, without being followed by any perceptible injury or ſickneſs.

Foreſts.

Some regions ſuffer a great ſcarcity of wood; and conſequently, if not all, yet a part of them are uninhabited: whereas others have ſuch a ſuperfluity of prodigious foreſts, that no uſe can be made of them. In Great Ruſſia, which, however, is much more thickly peopled than the remoter regions, theſe are ſeen: as a proof we need only mention the great and almoſt unuſed foreſts between Peterſburg and Moſco; as alſo thoſe between Vladimir and Arſamas, which appear even frightful to many travellers. In Siberia are ſome ſtill larger; for example, about the Ural mountains; in the diſtrict of the river Tara; on the Ufa as far as the Kama; and the mountainous and uninhabited tract of the foreſt Aterſkoy, between what lately were the provinces of Perme and Ufa, is ſeventy-five verſts over †.

* To remove the inequalities ariſing from moles, moſs, &c. is difficult, but very advantageous. — The collected hillocks make excellent manure.

† See Pallas, vol. iii. p. 466. 470. and 472.

Where

Where there are no iron-works, no towns nor rivers in the neighbourhood, theſe fine foreſts can neither be uſed nor their products be turned into money. The largeſt trees fall down with age, or are broke by ſtorms, lie rotting upon the ground, hinder the young ſhoots in their growth, and give the foreſts a diſmal appearance. They often cut down large quantities without making any uſe of them. So, lately, on account of the high-way robbers, who are apt to infeſt the foreſts, great cuts have been made on both ſides of the ways, which give a freer proſpect, and allow the air and the ſun to act with greater effect in drying the road.

There is a great diverſity of trees in the ruſſian empire, ſome of which ſhall be mentioned more particularly hereafter. The large oak foreſts in the government of Kazan are ſpared and managed with care, as the crown is ſupplied with ſhip-timber from them. The oak-foreſts in Livonia and Eſthonia are but ſmall; in Siberia oaks are not found to grow.

On the ſubject of foreſts a few further remarks are ſtill here to be made. The empreſs began to think ſeriouſly of their proper management, which formerly extended only to particular provinces: but was now to reach over the whole empire. By a decree of the 26th of March 1786, it is ordered that the foreſts belonging to the crown ſhall be deſcribed, ſurveyed, ſurrounded with a ditch, and

regularly ſet off into portions for felling *. The ſenate therefore iſſued its commands on the 18th of December 1791, to the general governors and their lieutenants, for this purpoſe. — However, it muſt be confeſſed that the proper culture of timber, in many, or even moſt parts of the empire, is ſtill to be reckoned among the unuſual matters of office; and that too even where a ſenſible ſcarcity calls aloud for the utmoſt care. A due partition of the falls is but rarely attended to by a private proprietor: the whole of his care commonly goes no farther than to the ſparing of an adjacent copſe that ſerves for an ornament to his manſion, or is favourable to the pleaſures of the chace, or affords a ſhelter in caſe of neceſſity. From ſimiliar cauſes ſeveral foreſts about St. Peterſburg are kept up with the greateſt attention. — The negligence that has hitherto prevailed in theſe reſpects has already long ago in ſome diſtricts put a total ſtop to their mine-works for want of the neceſſary firewood. — At the ſame time it is not to be wiſhed that this œconomy in the article of trees ſhould be carried to extremity, without having a due reſpect for the conſtitution of the provinces and

* As to ſuch as are private property every proprietor is left to his own diſcretion; it being one of the inherent rights of the nation, that every landholder ſhall have the free adminiſtration of his own poſſeſſions: and the government has never yet taken any ſtep towards the limitation of the ſubject's voluntary management of his foreſts and lands.

the

the claims of the boors. Theſe, as vaſſals, can poſſeſs no immovable property: all the wood they want they fetch gratis from the foreſts of their lord; which, from antient cuſtom, they treat as their own property. They may be compelled, however the late regulation may ſeem to be againſt it, to confine themſelves to the fall of wood allotted for the time; only neither a kameralhof, nor the hereditary lord, or his rangers, muſt pretend to aſcertain how much each boor ſhall annually take away from the fall; as his wants cannot be preciſely calculated, nor are they every year equally great. He will never fetch away more than he has occaſion for at home, unleſs he finds a convenient opportunity for carrying on a petty trade in the article of firing. Even this ought not to be too ſcrupulouſly forbid for two reaſons: firſt, becauſe, without this, many towns would be entirely deſtitute of fuel; ſecondly, becauſe the boor would thus be deprived of the means of ſupport on a failure of the harveſt, or under any other misfortune. There are places where the inhabitants moſtly gain their livelihood from the foreſts; as at Kargapol, for example. Conſequently, the management of woods, as practiſed in England and other foreign parts, could not be altogether introduced into Ruſſia. — The propoſal to remove all difficulties by allotting to every cottage its peculiar portion of foreſt, could not be everywhere executed; and it might likewiſe give room to apprehend leſt the then poſſeſſor, by negligence or by too prodigal a ſale of

his ſhare, might ſoon let it go to ruin, if competent overſeers were not appointed; who, as is felt by frequent experience in Livonia, are either thieves themſelves, or for a trifle of money will wink at the depredations of others.

Mountains.

Several governments are very flat, and almoſt one plain throughout; whereas in others are ſeen not only lofty mountains ſtanding inſulated and alone, but alſo large chains or ridges of mountains. Among others thoſe of Finland, Taurida, Kamtſhatka, &c. But the moſt noted, and in many reſpects the moſt beneficial, is that of the lofty Ural. It may be divided into three parts; the kirghiſian, the part abounding with ore, and the deſert, which reaches as far as the frozen ocean, and is ſtill for the moſt part uninhabited and unexplored. This monſtrous ridge is uſually held to be the line between Europe and Aſia, in ſuch manner that one ſide belongs to each of theſe quarters of the world. Pallas thinks * that the arm of it which bears the name of Obſhiſirt, and traverſes the country between the river Ural and the Samara, may be admitted as the border as far as the Caſpian. — The chalk-hills on the Don compoſe a large chain, with thoſe on the Buſuluk †. One principal chain is

* Travels, vol. ii. p. 312. † Ibid. vol. iii. p. 682. 684.

that

that which forms the natural boundary between the ruſſian empire and that part of Soongoria which now belongs to China; called, from the Irtiſh to the Oby, the Altaian; from the Oby to the Yeniſſey, the ſayane mountains, and runs between the Amoor and the Lena, even to the eaſtern ocean *. Generally ſpeaking, all Daouria and the regions lying beyond the Baikal, are mountainous, and many of its particular hills are of conſiderable height. — Moreover, arms of Caucaſus and the carpathian mountains extend into the european part of the empire.

In general, it is to be remarked, that ſome are covered with eternal ſnow and ice, while others are clothed with foreſts and a beautiful herbage. From the ſiberian mountains great advantages accrue to the nation on account of the excellent metals with which they abound. Others contain ſalt-ſprings, (and even whole mountains of ſalt,) or ſulphureous and otherwiſe excellent wells; beſides a variety of other valuable products. But there are alſo large ſand-hills, which ſeem to ſtand there for no uſe whatever, and to have ariſen merely from the caſual effects of inundations: they bear, however, ſometimes a ſort of graſs and herbs. Such are found in the ſandy deſert Naryn and on the river Achtuba, likewiſe about the Don, and the Ilovla that falls into it †. — On the peninſula of

* Pallas's travels, vol. ii. p. 510.

† Ibid. vol. iii. p. 540. 548. 683.

Kamtſhatka

Kamtſhatka and on ſome of the iſlands in the eaſtern ocean are burning mountains. — The lofty mountains, from the quantity of melted ſnow, during the ſummer, frequently cauſe inundations.

Steppes.

This term does not properly denote low and watery places, or moraſſes, but dry, elevated, extenſive, and for the moſt part uninhabited plains. Some of them being deſtitute of wood and water, are therefore uninhabitable; others have ſhrubs growing on them, and are watered by ſtreams, at leaſt have ſprings or wells, though they are void of inhabitants; yet in theſe nomadic people wander about with their herds and flocks, and thus make them, if not their conſtant, yet their ſummer reſidence. In many of them are ſeen villages. — Some occupy a very large ſpace: thus, it is calculated that the ſteppe between Samara and the town of Uralſk * amounts in length to upwards of ſeven hundred verſts; but, as every twenty or thirty verſts we come to a lake or river, the Uralkozaks traverſe them when they fetch their meal from Samara. — Probably hereafter ſeveral of theſe ſteppes, at leaſt in ſome places, will be cultivated, if they wiſh to raiſe foreſts upon them.

In regard to the ſoil an extreme variety prevails, either being very fruitful and proper for agriculture

* Formerly Yaik.

or

or for meadow-land, or indiſcriminately for both. Accordingly in the ſteppe about the Don, the kozaks of thoſe parts employ themſelves in agriculture, as well as in the breeding of cattle. Some of them furniſh excellent paſture by their fine herbage, as the ſouthern tract of the iſetſkoi province, and the ſteppe of the middle hord of the Kirghiſtzi*. Or the ſoil is unfruitful: whether it be the ſand, the ſalt, or the ſtone it contains that is the cauſe of it. Among theſe are to be reckoned the ſandy ſteppe on the Irtiſh near Omſk; in general we find about the mountains up the Irtiſh pure arid ſteppes, and therefore no villages. Alſo the Kraſno-uſimſkoi, between the rivers Belaia, Kama, and Tchuſſovaia, towards the Ural-chain, is moſtly ſandy; and that on the Argoun towards the borders of China, is of a ſtill worſe ſoil, conſiſting of rocky particles and flint. The whole of the ſteppe along the river Kuſhum, towards the town of Uralſk, is deſcribed by prof. Pallas† as dry, poor, ſaline, and unfit for any kind of agriculture, for the breed of cattle, and even for permanent inhabitants; there is not even a ſolitary ſhrub to be ſeen, much leſs any wood. In general ſaline ſpots are not unfrequent in the ſteppes; and here and there we alſo meet with ſalt-lakes: however, ſuch diſtricts may invite to camel-paſture.

* Pallas's travels, vol. ii. p. 75. † Ibid. vol. iii. p. 525.

Moſt

Moſt of the ſteppes are of a variable ſoil. So Pallas calls the extenſive Baraba, from the Irtiſh to the Oby, a beautiful country bleſſed with game and fiſh; for though one part of it is ſaline, yet it contains a great many lakes as well as large tracts very well adapted to agriculture. So likewiſe is the vaſt ſteppe of Kuman in many places ſandy, dry, and deſtitute of water; yet its flats which border on the river Kuma ſeem formerly to have been well peopled, and at preſent very favourable to that end.

The ſteppes are frequently fired, either by the negligence of travellers, or on purpoſe by the herdſmen, in order to forward the crops of graſs; or, it may be, out of malice, as ſome years ſince the kozaks of the Yaik did; when, having riſen in rebellion, a ſmall corps of ruſſian troops advancing againſt them, they ſaw themſelves all at once almoſt entirely ſurrounded by the high graſs on fire. Such a cataſtrophe often occaſions great miſchief; the flames ſpread themſelves far and wide, put the dwellings of the inhabitants in imminent danger, conſume the corn on the ground, and even ſeize on the foreſts. Many prohibitions under ſevere penalties have accordingly been iſſued againſt this practice, but they ſeldom have any effect *. All the ſteppes may be conſidered as a ſort of common land.

* See Pallas's travels, vol. ii. p. 378.

Moraſſes.

Moraſſes.

Of theſe alſo are great plenty, and of various magnitudes. Thus the northern verge of Siberia towards the ſhores of the frozen ocean, for ſeveral hundred verſts in width, is one prodigious watery moraſs, grown over with moſs, and entirely deſtitute of wood, and which in ſummer is only thawed to the depth of about a ſpan *. In the interior of the empire we meet with ſmaller; and many of the foreſts have a ſwampy bottom: among others may be noticed the tract between the rivers Kama and Viætka, which is very woody and boggy.

They may be reduced under the following four general kinds: 1. Simply low watery land; ſuch is capable of being improved, by letting off the water in the common methods, or by removing the trees that ſhade the ground, and prevent the wind and the ſun from acting upon it; it then may become good meadow and arable land. 2. Swamps, which, when they have but ſome drain for the water, bear at least ſhrubs; they yield turf formed out of the moſs, and even at times produce a little hay. 3. Bottomleſs moraſſes, which appear to be lakes grown over. They frequently will bear neither man nor beaſt. Only when they gradually thicken their upper ſhell by vegetation, ſome graſs

* Pallas's travels, vol. iii. p. 23.

may

may be cut upon them. They admit of no farther improvement than what Nature herſelf effects by degrees. Sometimes they have a few miſerable low buſhes upon them, but generally none at all. 4. Moſs-moraſſes, the deep and uſeleſs moſs of which will permit neither graſs nor a ſhrub to grow, or at moſt only a few low wretched ſticks of fir, &c. which preſently wither and die. They are abſolutely unprofitable; at leaſt they are held to be ſo.

Thus we ſee that ſome moraſſes are not without their utility, either by yielding a little hay in dry ſeaſons, or as containing turf, which in parts that produce no wood may be advantageouſly employed. Yet even the worſt moraſſes cannot be pronounced deſtitute of all utility: at leaſt in wet, rainy years they draw off a great quantity of water into them, and thereby prevent inundations, even ſuch as would ariſe from the melting ſnows, and laſt a long time; they therefore help to dry more ſpeedily the higher lands that have been overflowed.

Waſtes.

Tracts which, by reaſon of their rocky or at leaſt flinty ſoil, admit of no cultivation; or on account of their deep quickſands, which will ſcarcely ſuffer a poor blade of graſs to ſhoot up; or on account of their moſs, or their eternal ice, are totally unfruitful, ſeem to require no particular claſs, as they may aptly

aptly enough be referred to that of the wild ſteppes or the horrid moraſſes. Yet travellers ſometimes ſpeak of ſand-waſtes. One of this ſort, open, bare of ſhrubs or buſhes, is ſeen near Sheleſenſka *; alſo on the Irtiſh and in the Baraba are ſandy and ſaline waſtes, which never can be turned to any purpoſes of agriculture †. Still larger is the ſand-waſte Anketeri, between the rivers Kuma and Terek ‡. But the largeſt of all, named Naryn, commences between the river Uſen and the ſalt-lake Elton, and ſtretches quite to the Caſpian-ſea; yet, on the plains between the ſand-hills, are good fields, and might here and there be inhabited §.

Paſture-grounds.

Neither do theſe properly need to be particularized; for though there are large tracts of land, ſerving merely as paſture, yet in general fields, meads, foreſts, ſteppes, moraſſes, and even waſtes, are uſed as ſuch. The empire contains them in an innumerable abundance; many, from their fine graſſes and fodder, are of uncommon goodneſs. Hence it is, that in ſo many parts we have ſuch excellent cattle; and the paſture-grounds, which are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, commons, invite as it were to the nurture of cattle. The whole Ukraine, the country near Archangel, and ſome of the ſteppes, are famous

* Pallas's travels, vol. ii. p. 462. † Id. ibid. vol. iii. p. 274.
‡ Id. ibid. p. 541. and 590. § Id. ibid. p. 532, & ſeq.

for

for their excellent paſtures, and conſequently for their fine cattle.

By a late ordinance, on each ſide of the high-roads all over the empire a broad ſpace is left, which may not be granted to any perſon as property, nor be ploughed nor mown, but remain free that travellers may always find paſture for their horſes, as well as drovers for their cattle, along the roads to the various towns.

Salt-places.

Theſe are not uſually introduced under the head of land and ſoil of a country; but in treating of Ruſſia it is neceſſary, from the inexhauſtible quantity of its ſalt-places, which are of exceeding great importance to the ſtate, to its inhabitants, and to the revenue. Eſpecially in Siberia an amazing quantity of ſalt is produced.

Salt is a monoply of the crown; which ſupplies the empire with it at an extremely moderate price *. However, ſome provinces are excepted, who either fetch their ſalt themſelves entirely free of expence from the lakes; for example, the Ural-kozaks; or buy it of foreigners, as the provinces of the Baltic; and then the crown takes only the lake-tax. Mr. Pallas complains, in his travels, that from the preparing it at the ſalt-lakes, from the method of

* Therefore a guard is conſtantly kept at the ſalt-places, to prevent perſons from fetching ſalt from them contrary to law.

tranſport, and from general negligence, it is delivered uncommonly foul; and therefore he recommends the rock-ſalt, which is eaſily clarified. Omitting the ſea-ſalt*, we may reduce the ſalt-places under the following claſſes:

I. Rock-ſalt from the ſalt-mountains. To this claſs belong, among others: 1. The Iletzk in the region of Orenburg, which is well-known from the writings of ſeveral authors. 2. That in the mountain-ridge Arſargal-Shoogot in the ſteppe towards the Volga; it has not hitherto been ſufficiently brought into uſe, but is exceedingly pure and clear †. 3. The ſalt-hills about one hundred and fifty verſts from Tchernoyar. Probably alſo the region of mount Bogdo contains the ſame ſort of ſalt ‡.

II. Salt-lakes, the multitude of which, eſpecially in Siberia, is not to be deſcribed; where the ſalt, without boiling or any other preparation, forms itſelf, and ſhoots into thick ſcales. Of this kind are: 1. That in the Kuman-ſteppe, whence the Don-kozaks fetch ſalt in great quantities §. 2. The lake

* Georgi, in his paper for the prize at the academy, has expreſsly mentioned the ſea-ſalt near Archangel, which he might juſtly do, as ſome ſalt is actually obtained there from ſea-water. And there is no reaſon why the ſame methods might not be practiſed elſewhere if neceſſary.

† And therefore Mr Pallas recommends it; travels, vol. iii. p. 543, & ſeq.

‡ As Mr Pallas ſuppoſes, id. ibid. p. 675.

§ Pallas's Travels, vol. iii. p. 587, & ſeq.

Elton. The ſalt that forms itſelf in this is inexhauſtible. 3. Bogdinſkoi or Bogdom Dabaſſu, another inexhauſtible ſalt-lake, in the ſteppe towards Tzaritzin. Its ſalt is better than that of the * Elton 4. Inderſkoi, or the ſalt lake Inder, in the country of the Ural-kozaks: it is not leſs than twenty-ſix verſts in circumference, and yields excellent ſalt. 5. Ebelai, in the country of the Kirghis-kozaks, and particularly in the region where the river Tobol takes its riſe. 6. Borſinſkoi in Daouria, whence alſo ſometimes Nertſhinſk and other places are ſupplied. 7. The ſalt lakes of Uſen, whence the Ural-kozaks take their ſalt. 8. The Gurieffkoi, ſome of which, and particularly two, are much eſteemed. They lie in the Kirghis-ſteppe. For a long time the produce of them was brought under an eſcort to Gurief, where every inhabitant received it gratis from the magazine. 9. The Koriakoffkoi ſalt-lake, in the ſteppe twenty-two verſts from the Irtiſh; the ſalt of which, amounting annually to 450,000 pood, is brought in flat-bottomed boats to Tobolſk†. — To ſpecify particularly other ſalt-lakes would be ſuperfluous; but they are in great numbers in Taurida and elſewhere.

III. Salt-ſprings. There are of theſe which flow with ſalt in its proper ſtate, for inſtance in the government of Irkutſk; but their number is very in-

* Pallas's travels, vol. iii. p. 672, & ſeq.

† Id. vol. ii. p. 473.

conſi-

conſiderable; and therefore it will only be neceſſary to notice thoſe where works either are or might be raiſed. Of this ſort, where ſalt is actually prepared, we find in the government of Perme at three places, viz. 1. In the town of Solikamſk. 2. In the village Uſſoliye. 3. In the hamlet Chuſſofſkoi-gorodok. Some belong to the crown, and others to private owners, who deliver their ſalt to the crown at a price agreed on. — But there are alſo of the ſame kind in other parts; as at Staraia-Ruſſa. Buſching is miſtaken in ſaying that the works there are all gone to ruin. General Bauer has very much improved them, and his improvements have been in part introduced in Permia. — The diſtrict of Irkutſk uſes annually from 60 to 70,000 pood of ſalt; and that quantity is prepared there. — Sometimes the pood of ſalt coſts the crown on the ſpot only $4\frac{1}{2}$ kopeeks; but with the freight in Kungour 12, though in Niſhnei-Novgorod no more than about 10 kopeeks.

IV. Salt-ſtreams. Salt or ſaline ſtreams are numerous, beſides thoſe which Mr. Pallas has mentioned by name *. Speaking of the ſtream Solenka, which falls into the Achtuba, he is of opinion that its kitchen-ſalt would increaſe by damping it in the heat of the ſun.

V. Salt-grounds, which are dry, are found in abundance; as on the weſtern margin of the ſand-waſte Naryn, and in the Kuman-ſteppe; likewiſe in the

* Travels, vol. iii. p. 585.

ſteppe between the town Uralſk and Aſtrakan; ſome are ſo ſalt, that many bare places appear entirely white with it. — The Tavri-nor is a dry flat ſalt-ground in Daouria, extending, in length towards Mongolia, thirty verſts, and in its greateſt breadth above twenty: it may be conſidered as a great emptied lake. The ſteppes of Iſet, Iſchim, and the Baraba, as alſo the region beyond the Baikal, are rich in natrous glauber-ſalt; bitter ſalt grounds are likewiſe ſeen about the rivers Selenga, Chilok, Chikoi, Onon, and Argoun. So the ſteppe about the ſtream Kuſhum, towards Uralſk, contains many ſaline places *.

Of the principal mountains of Ruſſia.

The mountains of Ruſſia may be divided into eleven diſtinct heads, of which the greater part form principal chains of themſelves; while others are only continuations of huge ridges, the major part whereof are in the bordering territories. Theſe diviſions are: 1. The Sieverniyagori, or northern mountains, extending between the Baltic and the White Sea. 2. The Valday mountains. 3. The mountains of Taurida. 4. The Caucaſean mountains. 5. The Ural mountains. 6. The Altay mountains. 7. The Sayane mountains. 8. The Baikal mountains. 9. The Nerchinſkaia mountains. 10. The Okhotſkoy mountains; and 11. The Kamtſhatſkoy mountains.

* Pallas's Travels, vol. iii. p. 585.

I. The

I. The northern mountains, between the Baltic and the White Sea.

The mountains of Ruſſian Lapland.

Under this head are to be claſſed not only thoſe branches which may be conſidered as continuations of the ſcandinavian range, and enter on the ruſſian territory between the White-ſea and the Onega-lake, but likewiſe all the mountains of the governments of Vyborg, Olonetz, and Archangel; eſpecially thoſe in the circle of Kola, or in ruſſian Lapland. They lie almoſt totally beyond the 60th deg. of north lat. and, in length, from weſt to eaſt, take up a ſpace of more than fifteen degrees. They are for the moſt part but very little known. The accounts we are in poſſeſſion of are as follow: they proceed from St. Peterſburg, where, about the low country on both ſides the Neva, and towards the gulph of Finland, the ground plainly appears to be a mixture of ſand and ſlime, with numerous, often very large pieces of granite, and to have been overflown and left by the ſea. In this ground, ſome forty years ago, as they were digging a deep canal at Strelna, not far from St. Peterſburg, towards the neighbouring gulph of Finland, under ſeveral alternate ſtrata of ſtiff loam and earth, nay even below a ſtratum of ſtone, the workmen came to an oaken barge, but little altered otherwiſe than by the black colour it had acquired, with ſeveral human ſkeletons, and heaps of ſtraw or ſhilf, perfectly diſtinguiſhable.

From Peterſburg, quite to Toſnimſkoi-yam, we have ſandy plains, tending north-eaſtward till about Olonetz; thence, proceeding as far as the lake Kotk *, where they extend about the foot of a ſet of of mountains, ariſing from the Finniſh hills, conſiſting of granite and black (probably micaceous argillaceous) ſlate, diverſified with numerous vales and pits, which, continuing ſouth-eaſtwards, part the ſandy level from the juſt mentioned trappſtone mountains, on this ſide. Continuing our courſe from Petroſſk (or Petroſavodſk, now the chief town of the government of Olonetz), and having paſſed the iron-works northwards along the weſtern ſide of the Onega-lake, over the river Shuya which falls into it, and having reached the mountains that abound in iron ore, we meet with one of the principal curioſities of theſe parts, in the martial waters of Uſſona, Muun-ozero, &c. Here are ſeen a vaſt quantity of ſtems, branches, twigs, leaves, and roots of birch-trees, and other exuviæ of vegetables, entirely mineralized by iron, with the diverſe texture of the rotten wood plainly viſible, in which mineralizations the tender white rind, known to be in the higheſt degree incorruptible, is preſerved quite in its natural appearance, the ſoil changed into a rich ferruginous earth, and the graſſy ſod into iron ore. The like tranſmutations are ſeen in all the low ſpots and pits that incline towards the Muun lake, but particularly near the martial waters, and over-

* Kotkozero.

againſt

againſt the village Buigova. Here lie the iron ore in a wide-extended valley, foreſted apart with birch trees, and with gently-riſing hills on both its ſides. In this valley, though not in its deepeſt bottom, iſſue the martial ſprings, which, in 1716, by command of Peter I. were fitted with accommodations for public uſe. The well is ſunk about three arſhines and a half below the ſurface, in a hole in the ground conſiſting of heaps of roots both of trees and herbs (which are partly mineralized) and intermingled with flakes of ſtone, then an archine and a half in a clayey kind of a ſtone, mixed with a great quantity of ſulphur pyrites. In the deep points of the valley there is a layer of vitriolic earth under the forementioned, which is a mixture of iron earth and ſwampy iron-ore *. It is eaſily got, and is then taken to the vitriol works there and boiled. The mountain rock † of the heights riſing from the valley is the kind of ſtone mixed with pyrites beforementioned on the Brunnenſole, mingled with gravel. The weſtern heights incline into the Muun lake, from which the peninſula Deknavolok riſes to an uncommon height, and ſtill exhibits the ſame

* A ſpecies of the raſeneiſenſtein, ferrum ochraceum, reſpititium minera ferri ſubaquoſa; bog or ſwampy iron ore; phoſphate of iron.

† Bergart. The various rocks or ſtoney ſubſtances which compoſe what in mining is called *the country*, or that part of a mountain which is immediately traverſed by the veins compoſed of ore and the ſubſtances which ſerve as a gangue of matrix.

ſort of ſtone mixed with a ſurpriſing quantity of gravel and ſtriated with the ſame fragments. On the northern or more north-weſtern ſide of the Onega lake, the trappſtone mountains take their riſe from the river Shuya, partly reaching to a conſiderable height, partly flat, partly protuberant, and only towards the upper end of the lake gently riſing, detached, and for the moſt part ſtretching to the White Sea. Theſe trappſtone mountains, in ſome places interſperſed with ſerpentine, are in ſeveral directions, ſays M. Renovantz, viſibly (perhaps only apparently) underlaid * by the marble, as at Tievdeva and Pereguba. Near the former of theſe two villages, which is not far from Onega, the marble riſes out of a river ſwelling to a conſiderable height, and *unterteuft*, on its greateſt elevation, where are found great quantities of white and grey chalk-ſtone, interſperſed with coppery talc †, copper pyrites, and verdigris, about the trappſtone mountains towards the Sondall-lake. It is from this maſs of marble, as well as from that on the northern part of the Ladoga lake, near Ruſkoll and Serdopol, that the blocks are hewn for the imperial erections at St. Peterſburg. This marble, lying in flakes, diſcovers no trace of petrifications, but is in many places plentifully interſperſed with particles of friable quartz, which gives it in ſeveral parts the quality of emitting ſparks upon colliſion. In the various lakes hereabouts are iſlands, conſiſting of the ſame chalk-ſtone.

* Unterteuft. † Kupferglas.

The

The trappſtone mountains proceed from Tievdeva, both on the ſhores of the Onega-lake towards the north-eaſt, and in another direction towards the north. In the bay formed in this lake, called Pereguba, projects a low peninſula, named Pertnavolok, apparently from under the trapp, which conſiſts of a quartzy marble. The trappſtone mountain in theſe parts is frequently covered at its foot with ſtrata of granite, trapp, marble, and quartz, and containing ferruginous and cuprous ore, in neſts and heaps juſt under the ſod *. The peninſula Uſnavolok on the eaſt ſide of the Onega bay, and inclining into the lake of that name, and is in immediate connection with the circular chain of mountains, contains ſeveral of the like congeries, in which ſome portions of vitreous copper ore, a few of aſbeſtus, and ſtill fewer of mica, are interſperſed. The ſtriæ of theſe ſubſtances, thus ſituated, extend in many ſcarcely to a fathom, and their ſurface, according to the depth, ſtill leſs. Another vein of quartz contains ſpecular iron ore, and green ſchorl. In the middle of the circular chain of mountains, after the mountain has riſen to a very great height toward the north-weſt, and tending farther again toward the north-weſt, lies a moraſs overgrown with firs, pines, and birch trees, from which riſes a ſmaller, and cloſe by that a higher hill. Theſe two hills conſiſt of a grey trapp, ſlightly mingled here and there with coppery pyrites. Between the hills runs a courſe of looſe ſand, in ſome places a fathom and

* In Taggehængen neſtern und geſchutten.

a half

a half in depth, in others leſs, mingled with many large and ſmall pebbles; and under it a heap of from one to two and a half fathoms, as if compoſed of round grains of quartz run together, and is plentifully mingled with motley and braſs-coloured ſmall nodules of copper-pyrites, vitreous copper ore, cuprous talc ore, green and blue copper-ochre, ſingly likewiſe with aſbeſtus, hardened ſmall nodules of clay, little trapp nodules, and ſome few cryſtal gypſum or ſelenitical nodules, and through which a waving and inclining cleft extends not more than three inches thick, and filled with ſand and micæ. Theſe trapp mountains then proceed towards Lumpuſcha on the Onega, and thence, amidſt a variety of rivers, moraſſes, and lakes, on which little granite iſles appear; on all ſides, forming a delightful ſcene, ſhaping their courſe northward to Voyets or Voytz, a peninſula, laved on two of its ſides by the lake Vyg, and on the third by the river of that name which flows towards the White-ſea, where is ſeen a remarkable gold-mine, long ſince done working. About Lumpuſcha the trapp-mountain is violently ſhattered; huge rocky fragments, ſtruck off from the projecting parts, lie ſcattered at its foot. The trapp is here much mixed with ſpecular iron ore. Not far off is the Vitzga, a ſtream with numerous falls, flowing out of the ſuperior lakes, and loſing itſelf in the Onega; on one of its ſhores, which is quite ſteep, are lofty ſand-hills. Hence, till about Povenetz, theſe mountains gently decline, covered with

with ſand and ponderous maſſes of granite, to the Onega. Near Povenetz, the river of that name purſues its noiſy downward courſe, over rocks and projecting walls of granite. — In the Vyg lake alſo ſeveral granite iſlands, among many others, make their appearance, their foſſil-quality conſiſting of feldſpar, quartz, and micaceous earth, to the thickneſs of one's fiſt; the ſame is ſeen in ſome iſlands on the coaſt of the White-ſea towards Soroka. The peninſula Voytz, on the other hand, conſiſts of a country of quartz and curved lamellated talc, or a very quartzy gneiſs, which ſhews itſelf again about a verſt farther to the ſouth, in an iſland where is an abundance of quartz fragments interſperſed with ſpecular iron-ore, and copper pyrites. On the gneiſſy country of the Voytz-hills appears a coarſe ſerpentine of a greyiſh green colour. In this gneiſs runs a vein of quartz interſperſed with blue copper-ore, in which formerly lumps of native gold of ſome marcs in weight appeared. — This Voytz-hill is ſeparated from the weſtern trapp-mountains by the river Vyg, here forty fathoms broad. Directly in flank of the chain, on the weſtern ſide of the river, is a piece of mountain, ſeveral fathoms in length and breadth, entirely bare of ſoil, which is a true maſs of that quartzy mountain-rock mixed with talc, amidſt other collateral mixtures of the talc, and in conjunction with that mineral ſubcavating the trapp-ſtone, which here contains nodules of ſpecular iron-

ore

ore frequently as thick as one's fiſt, and here and there interchanged with ſerpentine.

About ſeven verſts weſtward from the Voytzer hill, in which interval ſeveral trapp-ſtone ridges riſe, whoſe natural foſſil in many places is replete with little cubes of feldſpar, ſome rock projects on the higheſt ſummit of the ſaid mountain, conſiſting of quartz and talc again between the trapp; and we eaſily deſcry in it two parallel veins of quartz, running in a long and ſtrait direction from one to two feet thick, which perhaps are not without hope. — Theſe trapp-mountains proceed yet farther northward, quite to the White-ſea; where, laſtly, the granite projects cloſe on the ſhore of the ſea, farther to the weſt, (eſpecially on the bay of Kandalak, and the iſlands that appear in it,) attains to conſiderable heights, and exhibits a variety of remarkable phænomena. For example, vaſt rocks of granite, projecting from the great cataract of the Summa into that river. On an iſland called Kimaliſha, lying between the mouths of the rivers Shuya and Soroka, off the coaſt of the White-ſea, we have in the granite veins of micaceous earth richly mixed with a beautiful brown frequently glandulous, with granites and green tranſparent ſhorl; and between Kemmi and Keret are very large ſheets of muſcovy glaſs, produced by ignition * from a coarſe-grained granite. — Depart-

* Muſcovy glaſs by ignition is not allowed by mineralogiſts in general.

ing

ing from the Voytzer mountain towards the eaſt, we perceive nothing but the ſandy plain diverſified with moraſſes, lakes, and rivulets, from which riſe conſiderable ſand-hills mixed with granite, quartz, and pebbles of hornſlate, which farther eaſtward interchange with layers of chalk and gypſum, in which multitudes of petrified marine animals are ſeen.

Leaving again the before-mentioned martial waters, and taking a farther range and more to the weſtward, from the Onega towards Pertnavolotok and Muun-ozero, the trapp-ſtratum proceeds in its ſimple ſtate for the depth of forty feet and more, conſiſting of a blackiſh clay copiouſly mingled with delicate particles of iron and flat grey ſquares of feld-ſpar, wherein, in this vein, were ſeveral copper-pits, formerly very yielding, but are now exhauſted, eſpecially thoſe known under the names of Nadejeda and Niffelſkoi, together with that called the ſilver pit, on ſtrong courſes of quartz and ſpar, which were worked for a ſpace of fifty years and upwards to a conſiderable depth. — From theſe pits the mountains tend north-weſtward towards the borders of Lapland; yet their principal veins ſtill continue to the north, or rather from the north. Their prevalent ſubſtance continues to be for the moſt part trapp, containing ſuperficial veins filled with copper pyrites. Several of a ſimilar ſpecies are ſeen at Svetnavolok, where the mountain riſes quite apart from the reſt, and ſingle. Some of theſe mountains are covered with blocks of quartz of an aſtoniſhing magnitude.

nitude. In many places the trapp is changed for ſerpentine, of a pleaſant green colour, as at Sludinakupſka, where a beautiful ſerpentine, ſprinkled with copper-pyrites, ſpotted with yellow and black, and capable of a fine poliſh, is found in abundance.

From Svetnavolok the mountains proceed farther to the north, at firſt bold, then gently, as far as the parts adjacent to the lake Pell; thence purſuing their courſe to the lakes Uſt and Tor, and are covered with huge maſſes of granite, quartz, and hornſtein; at Uſnokontza, and about the Kuman lake, there riſes a talcky micaceous ſchiſtus out of the trapp. Theſe mountains reach to a conſiderable height at Moſelka, and again toward the weſt reſign the higheſt place to the granite. From the Kuman lake the trapp mountains run, with fewer changes, weſtward about the lake Vyg, to Sondola, and terminate in a direction almoſt due north, at the weſtern bank of the river Vyg, near the gold mines of Voytz.

About Sondola, particularly towards the eaſt, the mountains riſe to a conſiderable elevation, and contain, as their chief mineral ſubſtance, a ſtratum of quartz ſomewhat mixed with clay. However, they only riſe ſingly, as the foot around is entirely covered with moraſſes or lakes. In ſome are perpendicular veins of quartz, with galena, ſome copper-pyrites, black ſparry lead-ore, markaſite, ſulphur-pyrites, and ochre. In other of the like clefts appear

alſo

alſo blue copper-ore, great nodules of copper pyrites, ſpar, and quartz cryſtals; in others again pitch-ore of copper, vitreous copper-ore, cryſtallized blue copper, ſpecular iron-ore, &c.

The Bear iſlands in the White-ſea conſiſt partly of granite, and partly alſo of trapp. The granite bears a reddiſh feldſpar, quartz, and everywhere but little hornblende. The veins of lead that have been here explored extend, as I am told, in the granite.

The Ruſſian ſhare of Finland is throughout a mountainous country. Towards the north it contains a number of granite mountains, and enormous blocks of the ſame quality. But more to the ſouth, and chiefly in the region of the Ladoga lake, are numbers of chalk-ſtone, marl, ſand and ſlate mountains. In ſome, ſpecimens of copper and lead have been brought out; iron-ore abounds, not only in the government of Olonetz, but alſo in thoſe of Vyborg and Archangel.

In general it appears from what has been ſaid, that the main ridges, or the greateſt elevations of theſe mountains, come from Sweden; and extend partly from weſt to eaſt, beyond the northern coaſts of the Baltic, and the lakes of Ladoga and Onega, towards and through the White-ſea, but partly hold their courſe out of Lapland too, from the north to the ſouth. For better diſtinction, (as the name Northern is too general,) we might more properly ſtyle theſe the Lapland mountains. From their outward form, it is clearly manifeſt that they have undergone very

very violent revolutions; as they appear, for the moſt part, extremely broken and incomplete. Their figure is very frequently ſharp and prominent; but their height, on the whole, very moderate; though there are many, eſpecially in Lapland, that are never entirely diveſted of their ſnow. The higher, namely the principal mountains of theſe parts, conſiſt of granite, trapp, hornſlate, gneiſs, and flaky chalkſtone, and probably likewiſe of porphyry and ſerpentine-wake. About the Onega and Ladoga lakes, in the ſouthern part of Finland, &c. many of the mountains conſiſt merely of thick, not unfrequently red-ſpotted chalkſtone. It is a circumſtance peculiar to theſe parts, that in the moraſſes, bogs, and low-grounds, they contain an extraordinary quantity of granite blocks, frequently of a prodigious ſize. It was from this place that the great rock on which the ſtatue of Peter I. at St. Peterſburg ſtands was fetched. The whole of this mountainous country is uncommonly abundant in water, being as it were overſtrewn with lakes, rivers, cataracts, brooks, and marſhes. In the Baltic and the gulf of Finland, in the Ladoga and the Onega lakes, and in the White-ſea, an innumerable multitude of iſlands appear. — The interior mineral quality of all theſe mountains, as appears from what has been ſaid above, has not hitherto been found to be remarkably rich, and what gold, ſilver, copper, and lead courſes have been explored in them, were preſently exhauſted. Iron alone, they ſtill contain in great quantities, and this,

for which there are works in many places, is, if we except marble, granite, ſome window-mica, and a little labrador ſpar, ſometimes found in the blocks of granite, all that is now got from theſe mountains.

Beſides ſeveral rivers, which, like the Neva, moſtly take their origin from the lakes hereabouts, not any large river originates from theſe mountains; though the vaſt lakes of Ladoga and Onega, and a multitude of inferior note, are in their neighbourhood.

Many of the mountains are bare; but the greater part of them, and particularly the valleys and lowlands, are clothed with foreſts. The kinds of trees here are moſtly the black pine, the birch, the common fir, and the larch. The foreſts in the parts about the Onega lake are of very great extent. — The generality of the vallies and lowlands contiguous to theſe mountains are of a black bog-mould, others of well-ſand, but ſome are fertile enough, and decked with fine meadows, where the breeding of cattle is the principal ſource of maintenance to the inhabitants. In Lapland, and in ſome other northern diſtricts, wood ſucceeds but badly, and moſt of the valleys are overgrown with moſs, which is a welcome fodder to the numerous rein-deer of theſe parts. In the northern ſituations the valleys are by no means rich in plants; yet many of the lowgrounds are amply ſtored with berries and a variety of muſhrooms. But, on the other hand, theſe countries abound in wild animals, and an inconceivable

quantity of both land and water fowl of various denominations.

The Valday mountains.

Theſe mountains, whoſe ridges we travel over in going from Peterſburg to Moſco, are probably but a continuation of the Lapland mountains already deſcribed. They were known to the antient geographers by the name of Mons Alaunus. At preſent they are indifferently called Vhiſokaya Ploſtchade, high riſing ground, or the mountains of Valday, from the town and the lake Valday which are ſituated on their tops.

At no greater diſtance than ten verſts from St. Peterſburg, on the Moſco road, we already ſee great quantities of maſſes of granite ſtrewed over the fields around, on which the feldſpar is almoſt entirely effaced *. The ſoil is at firſt, and as far as twenty verſts, mere moor ground. At Slovenka, twenty-two verſts from St. Peterſburg, we firſt meet with ſome clay-hills. Farther on, the country again becomes ſwampy and ſandy; but at the ſame time ſtrewn with vaſt numbers of blocks of granite, ſome of them enormouſly large. Among theſe maſſes are alſo large blocks, with radiated and lamellated ſchorl. Till we get upwards of one hundred verſts from the reſidence, the country is everywhere low, and we travel through almoſt one continued foreſt; but now it becomes ſomewhat higher, and the ſoil

* *Verwittert.*

more

more clayey. We likewiſe come to ſeveral villages. Large granite rocks are here particularly numerous. Having again paſſed ſeveral great moraſſes, we reach Novgorod, in a country thronged with hills of marl, ſand, and clay. The well-ſand, whereof a great part of the way already paſt conſiſts, is in many places of a reddiſh hue, and everywhere mixed with many granite, quartz, and chalkſtones. To the right of the great high road, and ſouthward from Novgorod, lies the Ilmen lake, in the parts adjacent to which are many chalkſtone beds, with bridges over them, petrifactions, and ſalt-ſprings. The laſt-mentioned are at Mſhaga, Saltzveckſha, Uglenka, and Staraia-Ruſſa. On leaving the laſt of theſe towns, we have the Seliger lake and the ſources of the Volga in the ſouth-eaſt. We croſs the river near Lovat, and proceed along the Pola, as far as the mouth of the impetuous river Ivan. Here, about the Ilmen lake, and in nearly the ſhape of a creſcent, ariſe the Flotz hills, which, gradually, on the Shelon beyond Saltzi, on the Lovat, about twenty verſts below Cholm, on the Mſta at Belſkoi-voloſt, and on the Siæs at Tichvin, increaſe to a very eminent mountain-ridge. Below the mouth of the Ivan or Yevan, along which the ſtoney ſtratum, as about the ſources of the Siæs, is the higheſt and the ſteepeſt, flows the Pola for ſeveral verſts over a bed of marl and ſand ſlate. At this place there is a great deal of potter's clay, of which all kinds of earthen veſſels for common uſes are made.

Following the Moſco road from Novgorod, acroſs the mountains, to the diſtance of thirty verſts farther, we have a hilly ground, partly of ſand and partly of clay, to paſs over, on which the blocks of granite, quartz, and ſand ſtone are very numerous, and of conſiderable bulk. About Novgorod the earth is in ſome places ſo loamy and heavy, that great clods of it lie upon the fields, and prevent the coming up of the ſeed. Near Bronitza, a ſpacious village on the Mſta, lie a great many granite ſtones, ſome whereof are extremely large; eſpecially thoſe that one ſees on a pretty high hill, on which there ſtands a church. The largeſt lie moſtly on the north declivity of the hill. On a particular ſpot, upon the ſhore of the Mſta, there is a bed of quartz ſand at leaſt three arſhines in depth, under which runs a layer of clay. Hence to Bolotnitza the ground is ſtill much more hilly, and the granite blocks more numerous. Among theſe there are alſo many pieces of jaſper, trapp, and quartz. From this village to the town of Valday is a diſtance of forty-four verſts. Nothing is ſeen here but great hills covered with ſand, and frequent maſſes of granite. On theſe hills, where, however, we never once ſaw the naked granite puſhing upwards, the granites are of a variety quite peculiar. They are found from the fineſt grain, up to blocks of very large dimenſions, and of red, grey, bluiſh and blackiſh colours. Sometimes the quartz, then the feldſpar, one while the hornblende, at another mica, and at another a fine needle-

ſhaped

ſhaped ſchorl, has the aſcendant. Together with the granite there is alſo found much quartz, ſome porphyry and jaſper, and pieces of ſchneideſtein, or ſteatites. Of the latter ſort Mr. Hermann found, among others at the village Votſkoy, about 324 verſts from Peterſburg, a large block (not rounded off) of upwards of one hundred pood in weight, having many within-lying brown ſpiculæ of ſchorl and ſmall tranſparent red brown granites. The country about Valday, being the higheſt point of the mountain, is extremely pleaſant. Fine, ſlow-riſing hills, a charming pellucid lake, with an iſland on which ſtands a noble monaſtery, delightful groves, an extenſive ſcenery, forming the moſt inviting variety. One ſcarcely thinks himſelf on the mountain, and is almoſt inclined to take this region for a kind of plateaux, ſo gently do the mountains raiſe their heads.

At a few verſts from Valday the road begins to decline very faſt. The granite blocks on the mountains covered with ſand and clay, are ſtill in great numbers, but by far not ſo large as on the oppoſite ſide. There even already appear a good many petrifactions in chalk and flints. The latter are frequently of the jaſper kind. — Towards Viſhnei Volotſhok the road goes again over little hills, ſwampy and well-ſandy ground. On many plots, and even till within twenty verſts of Viſhnei Volotſhok, there is a multitude, and ſome of them very large blocks of granite. Several of the wellſand hills contain lumps of granite, quartz, ſandſtone, limeſtone, and flints, all together, in great numbers. It is remarkable, that we

here meet with many blocks of ſandſtone, while they are very rarely to be ſeen on the north-weſt ſide of the mountain. — Between Viſhnei Volotſhok, and eſpecially in the diſtrict of Nicolſkoi monaſtir, the country is plentifully ſtrewn with petrifactions in fireſtone and chalkſtone. Among them are found echinite-ſtalks that are transformed into carnelian.

Between Torſhok and Tver the country is flat, and the quality of the ſoil much like that above deſcribed. They uſe here for buildings a ſort of white marly ſtone, which contains great quantities of broken ſhells, and ſolitary ammonites petrified into chalk-ſtone. On the other ſide Tver the fireſtones are far leſs common on the ſurface. About Klin we find again ſeveral clay-hills, in which ſtick large blocks of granite and ſand-ſtone; alſo fireſtone, with and without petrifactions, and pebbles of chalcedony. From Klin to Moſco the ſoil is very clayey, but always mixed with ſome blocks of granite. The region about Moſco offers great abundance of beautiful petrifactions, and eſpecially of pyritical ammonitæ into pyrites, prettily embelliſhed with mica of a metallic luſtre. Along the Vachuſa, by the Volga, we ſee myriads of pebbles of all ſorts of colours; and farther on, in the diſtrict between Moſco, Kaluga, Smolenſk, &c. much chalkſtone incloſing great quantities of ſhells of various ſpecies.

The higheſt point of this ridge of mountains is, therefore, Valday. It ſhapes its courſe hither from the north, and appears to take its departure from be-

tween

tween the lakes Ladoga and Onega. It then ſtretches acroſs the Miſta, runs between the Ilmen lake and the Seliger, and extends its foot as far as into the governments of Smolenſk, Orel, and Novgorod-Severſki. About its weſtern, ſouthern, and eaſtern declivities, are ſeveral ſtrong ſtrata of chalk and marl, which farther on are loſt in marſhy and ſandy plains.

Some naturaliſts are of opinion that the whole of this Valday chain of mountains is the effect of violent inundations, and that it entirely conſiſts of a chalkſtone ariſen from crumbled and deſtroyed marine productions. Highly poſſible as this conjecture is, it may be no leſs likely that the middle part is a primitive mountain, having granite for its principle ſtratum, which, through length of time, and perhaps even under water, is ſo much decayed as to be in a manner ſmoothed; for, as far as I know, no chalk-pit has yet been opened on its ſummit; and how much ſoever, ſome blocks of granite on theſe mountains are rounded off, yet we ſee a great many that are ſo but in a ſmall degree. But even if all theſe maſſes were rounded, it would ſtill be no proof that they were all brought hither by the flood. Of thoſe by Bronitza in particular, this would be extremely difficult to believe. I therefore take all theſe elevations, till ſome very ſolid reaſons ſhall convince me to the contrary, to be an original mountain decayed and deſtroyed on its ſurface, on which, round about its declivities, the looſe chalk and marl was floated or depoſited.

Notwithſtanding ſo much is to be ſaid concerning the mineral quality of theſe mountains, no mine has as yet been explored among them. Some ſpecimens, indeed, it is ſaid, have been brought up of copper and lead; but the attempt has been proſecuted no farther. There is plenty of iron; eſpecially at Poterpelitz, where it ſeems that a bed of pyrites by accident taking fire, it left large pits, and deep cavities in the earth, which afterwards filled with water, and are now little lakes abounding in fiſh. The heat of the fire, however, muſt needs have been very violent, as the martial parts of the pyrites were perfectly in fuſion, and flowed together into iron-ſtone, partly porous, partly ſolid, without having left behind any ejections, or other ſigns of this tremendous phænomenon, a burning mountain. It is more certain that the bottom of all the lakes is of this confluent ironſtone. The beds on the Miſta contain a great quantity of ſulphur pyrites, vitriolic earth, alum, coals, iron-ore, petrifactions, &c. The pyrites are found, of every known figure, and of excellent luſtre. A bed of coal ſtretches principally about Borovitſk; and ſalt-ſources, chalk-pits, and gypſum, are found in Stara-Ruſſa.

The extreme elevation of the Valday mountains is but very moderate; as the higheſt point is ſcarcely two hundred fathoms above the level of St. Peterſburg. Upon them are not only the Valday-lakes, but alſo ſome others of inferior note; and at its weſtern foot, is the great lake Ilmen, at the ſouthern, the

the Seliger, &c. Of the rivers, ſome take their origin from the mountains, others from the lakes that lie at their feet: The Volga, the Duna, the Volkhof, the Lovat, the Pola, the Tſhagedo, the Kolp, the Dneiper, the Don, the Oka, &c.

Theſe mountains are but ſparingly clothed with foreſts, but ſo much the more with beautiful meadows and fields; hence the grazier's trade is here carried on with conſiderable profit. The ſpecies of wood are, the ſeveral ſorts of pines and firs, the birch, the linden, the aſpin, the alder, &c. The ſoil in the valleys moſtly conſiſt of clay and marl, and is in general fertile.

The mountains of Taurida.

The peninſula of Krim, from the neck of land where the fortreſs of Perekop ſtands, is all a flat, which gradually becomes higher, till at laſt it riſes into lofty mountains, which form the ſouthern ſide of it, and the ſhore of the Euxine ſea. The range of mountains extends from Theodoſia in a ſtraight line weſtwards, quite up to Balbeck. At Karaſubaſar two towering pinnacles ſhoot up, and at Akmetchet a very lofty one, which is called Aktau. The ſmaller mountains ſtand diſtinct and ſcattered. It is extremely probable, that this range is partly a continuation of the caucaſian, and partly of the carpathian mountains; and that theſe two principal chains are connected by it; which alſo ſeems apparent from the nature and quality of the mountains

oppoſite

oppoſite to thoſe of Taurida, which extend beyond the Danube, through Bulgaria, and are called Pulkanian.

The component parts of the mountains of Taurida are as yet but little known. Thus much is certain, that the greater part conſiſts of chalk-maſſes with petrifactions, and many beds of ſand and marl, and chalk-hills with flints. It is therefore to be preſumed, that in general they are not to be claſſed with the original, but only with the alluvial or depoſited mountains. A part of them are thought to owe their origin even to the ſubterranean fires. However this be, it is ſaid that lead, copper, and iron ores are found in them, as well as jaſper, agate, and mountain cryſtal. In limeſtone, marble, ſlate, ſandſtone, coals, naphtha, and common ſalt, they are very rich. — The iſle Taman conſiſts merely of beds of ſand and marl, without limeſtone.

Their height, in compariſon with other chief-mountains, is but moderate. They are in a great meaſure deſtitute of foreſts. The trees that grow upon them are thoſe of the richeſt foliage, ſuch as oaks, beech, cheſnuts, &c. However what they are deficient in wood, is amply made up for by the rich and beautiful herbs of the vallies.

The rivers that take their riſe from the mountains of Taurida are, the Alma, the Katſha, the Kabarda, the Salgyr, the Karaſſu, and a great number of little ſtreams that in many places form very pleaſing natural caſcades.

The

The Caucaſian mountains.

The Caucaſian mountains, as far as they have hitherto been explored on the ruſſian ſide, are truly an alpine range, extending, between the Euxine and the Caſpian, from weſt to eaſt, in length about three hundred and fifty engliſh miles, and towards the north and ſouth in a level country all around. They greatly decline as they approach both the ſeas. The whole range has a tract of about five miles in breadth, where the chain is at its greateſt height, which is covered with eternal ice. Its breadth on the northern declivity extends at moſt to fifty miles, and runs along on the prodigious northern plain, which, taken in the quadrature, meaſures one thouſand engliſh miles, being bounded on the eaſt by the ſiberian, and on the weſt by the valakhian mountains. The icy ridges, as well as the others, at their higheſt points, conſiſt moſtly of granite, the ſides leaning towards the next mountains, of all kinds of ſlate, and the outward ſides of limeſtone, &c. This limeſtone mountain runs in a flat clayey field of twenty miles in breadth, gradually declining, till it ends in a promontory ten miles broad, which conſiſts almoſt entirely of ſandſtone; and this again runs out afreſh in a clayey plain about eight miles broad, in which likewiſe numerous ſandſtone-hills ariſe. In this plain common ſalt and natron are met with in great abundance. In the promontory are ironſtone, ſulphur-pyrites, vitriol, petroleum, and warm baths not unfrequent; petrifactions are likewiſe found here,

here, though not in great numbers, moſtly in flint. Specimens of lead and copper are rarely ſeen in the promontory, but in the higher mountains frequently. The ſlate contains alum. A piece of this caucaſian ridge is ſaid to have no waving mountains at its northern termination. As to what regards the quality of its ſuperior regions, it is to be remarked, that the river Hippus in Iberia bears gold, the mountains in that region are ſaid to be very rich in minerals, and that the gold mines at Cumana were already worked by the Romans; that the mountains on the Kura, and eſpecially in the diſtrict of Azghur likewiſe contain very rich ores; that in the plains of that river are found fine marble, coal, and warm ſprings; in the mountains by the Terek, as far as the village Stephantzminda, there is lead, ſilver, and iron ore; in the georgian province Somghetia, rich ſilver and iron ore, marble, and jaſper; in the circle of Quoetſh copper-ore; in the principality of Tamblut rich lead, ſilver, and gold mines; in the principality of Lori conſiderable copper-mines, good millſtones; in the principality of Unſular rich copper-mines; in the parts about Akdale, gold, ſilver, and copper; and in the province of Albania, marble and alabaſter, iron, warm baths, petroleum, and rock ſalt.

Hence it appears, that the caucaſian chain of mountains is a main courſe, in its higheſt points covered with ice-mounts; that it has its higheſt, high, middle, and fore-mountains, or promontories, the riſings neareſt to the level of the plain; that its ſides are very rich in minerals, and probably, in thoſe

thoſe parts which are now added to the ruſſian empire, contain a treaſure of the precious metals. Its eminence, on the whole, is conſiderable, and many of the rocky parts very ſteep and prominent. In many of its extremely fertile vales it is furniſhed with charming woods, conſiſting of excellent foreſt trees of various kinds. — On the ruſſian ſide of theſe mountains, the rivers Terek, Kuban, Kumma, and a number of ſmaller ſtreams take their riſe.

For rendering this account as complete as poſſible, I will here ſubjoin a few particulars from what Guldenſtædt ſays of Caucaſus. "The main moun-" tain," ſays he, "or rather the high ridge of the " main mountain, from which the whole on both " ſides declines and ſinks towards the ſeas, conſiſts " moſtly of ſnow or ice mounts of a truly alpine " height, which, by reaſon of their local elevation, " particularly in ſome open fiſſures, contain everlaſt-" ing ſnow and ice, generally exhibit bald rock, " without any covering of earth or plants and trees, and " in ſome parts pierce into the clouds. This, which " may properly be called an alpine chain, ſeems to " me not more than five to ſeven verſts in breadth, " and conſiſts of a granitic ſtratum. — The two ſides " of the high alpine ridge, which form the main " mountain, I take to be, from ſouth to north, or right " acroſs, meaſured in ſeveral places, on an average, " ſeventy verſts. They ſtand immediately in the " main ridge; and the north ſide is viſibly ſteeper " or higher than the ſouthern, as it declines in a far " narrower

" narrower or ſmaller breadth, or rather only ſinks
" down towards one part. — The higheſt ridges
" of Caucaſus conſiſt of granite; cloſe to which,
" both on the northern and ſouthern ſides, are
" mountains of ſlate, and farther on, chalk-hills,
" which terminate in ſand-hills. In the latter are
" found ſulphur, ſulphur-pyrites, warm ſulphureous
" ſprings, petroleum, rock-ſalt ſources, nitrous ſalts,
" bitter ſalts, magneſia vitriolata, alum, ſelenite, &c.
" — The northern promontory flattens partly at the
" Kuban, and partly over it, and at and acroſs the
" Terek, northwards, in the vaſt, arid, clayey,
" ſandy, ſalt, woodleſs ſteppe, which towards the
" Manytſh is called the Kuban, and towards the
" Kumma the kummanian ſteppe, and occupies the
" ſpace between the inferior Don and the inferior
" Volga. — In the northern track of ſlate, appears
" ceruſe of lead, which contain ſilver, and copper
" pyrites in ſlaty ſtrata, in courſes of quartz and
" ſpar, in various veins, particularly four in the
" province of Kiſteri in the diſtrict of Galgai, on
" the river Aſſai, between the villages Oſai and
" Cheirechi. Courſes of bleyglantz are ſeen alſo
" above, on the Terek, in the georgian diſtrict of
" Kovi, in the diſtrict of the old fortreſs Dariella.
" Other lead-ores are found on the river Pog, by
" the brook Tſhidſhei, near the villages Tſhimeti
" and Tſharkau, on the right ſide of the Aradan,
" of the Terek, in the diſtrict of Dugor, near the
" village Nakatza. — The ſlaty mountain near the

" Aſſai, is very rich in ores, eſpecially about the " head of the Archoun, the Sundſha, the Kiſil, the " Pſok, and the Aredon. About the Terek, it " yields alſo copper and alum. Iron-ſtone abounds " in many parts of theſe mountains. — From all " this we may ſafely conclude, that mining might " be begun and carried on in the northern Caucaſus " to great advantage, eſpecially for Ruſſia; only " care muſt firſt be taken to eſtabliſh ſtrong and " well-garriſoned forts for the protection of the " miners againſt the ravages of the thieviſh tribes " that inhabit the mountains, till they have attained " to a greater degree of civiliſation, and even them- " ſelves take a turn for mining *."

The Ural mountains.

This famous chain of mountains, which forms the natural boundary between Europe and northern Aſia, is commonly called the Ural, or the belt, as if it girted the whole world. The antients gave this chain the appellation of the hyperborean and the ryphean mountains, and ſometimes Montes Rhymnici. Under the laſt of theſe denominations the baſhkirian Ural was more particularly deſigned. The northern Ural they termed Montes Hyperboræos, or Riphæos, and the ſouthern Rhymnicios. The former were afterwards alſo called the Yugorian mountains. Ural is a tartarian word, ſignifying a belt or girdle, by which the Ruſſians likewiſe denote this range; for they call it Kammenoi and Semnoi poyas, that is,

* See Guldenſtædt, reiſe, theil i. ſ. 433, & ſeqq.

the

the Rock or Earth-girdle. Theſe mountains extend, from ſouth to north, almoſt in a direct line, greatly above 1500 engliſh miles. The mountains between the Caſpian and the lake Aral may be conſidered as their commencement, which attain their greateſt height and bulk about the ſources of the rivers Ural, Tobol, and Emba; from thence ſtretch on towards the origin of the Tſhuſſovaia and the Iſets, and farther on to the ſources of the Petſhora and the Soſva; laſtly form two great promontories about the karian haven of the frozen ocean; and after being divided by the ſtraits of Vaygat, reach their termination in the mountains of Novaia Zemlia. Such is the main courſe of this prodigious chain, which iſſues from the higher aſiatic mountains, is gradually lowered, with ſeveral frequently imperceptible interruptions, and laſtly ſinks in the frozen ocean. — Some conſiderable collateral branches take a weſtern as well as an eaſtern courſe from it. The moſt material that extend from the former ſide are thoſe called Obſchtſchei-Sirt, the mounts of ſeparation, which run out between the river Ural and the Sakmara, and on one ſide unites with an arm coming out of the kirghiſtzi ſteppe on the left ſhore of the Ural; on the other ſide projects into the old kalmuc ſteppe between the Volga and the Ural, and northerly is in conjunction with the ſandſtone mountains which accompany the main courſe of the Ural on the weſtern ſide. — Near the forts of Orſk and Guberlinſk, a part of the

the mountains run out ſouth-eaſtward into the kirghiſtzi deſerts, and reach to the mountain Ulutau which ſtands about the centre of that region, and is attached to the great Altay. This arm, extending near the abovementioned forts towards the ſouth-eaſt, is called the Guberlinſkoi mountains. — Another courſe, ſmaller than the foregoing, runs ſouth-eaſtward between the rivers Ural and Ui, under the name of Okto Karagai, through the open ſteppe of the middle horde of the Kirghis-kaiſaks, and then purſues its way, under the appellation of Alginſkoi-Sirt, towards the Irtiſh and the Altay mountains.

The whole Ural chain may be aptly divided into three main parts: 1. The kirghiſtzi Ural, which extends from the Caſpian and the Aral, and eaſtward out of the great ſteppe of the Kirghis-kaiſaks, as far as the origin of the Tobol and the Yemba. 2. The Ural rich in ores, properly implying the Ural ore mountains, which takes in the whole mountainous track, with its weſtern and eaſtern appendages, from the riſe of the ſaid rivers and the Guberlinſkoi mountains, quite up to the ſources of the Solva and Kolva; and 3. the deſert Ural, extending from theſe rivers to the frozen ocean. The Ural that abounds in ores may be again ſubdivided into the orenburg, the ekatarinenburg, and the verchoturian Ural.

This main courſe of the Ural mountains has one peculiarity, that it declines incomparably more on

its weſtern ſide than on the eaſtern, and on the former is accompanied by a conſiderable track of collateral ridge, very rich in copper, and conſiſting for the moſt part in ſchiſtoſe ſandſtone.

The higheſt mountain of the Ural chain is in the Baſhkirey, (or in the orenburg Ural,) and in verchoturian Ural. Yet the former far exceeds the latter. They are moſtly met on the ſide of the range inclining to the weſt; as, for inſtance, the Iramel, Pſetak, Taganai, Dſhigalgo, Ageſhurdyk, Imen or Yamontau, &c. But likewiſe on the eaſt ſide are ſome very lofty heads; for example, the Irentick and Karantaſh, from which latter the river Ural takes its birth. In verchoturian Ural the greateſt elevations are the Voſtroi-kammen, the Konkeſheſſkoi-kammen on the Lobva, and the Pavdinſkoi and the Koſvinſkoi-kammen on the Tauda. Some of them, as the Ageſhurdyk, the Dſhigalgo, the Taganai, the Komkeſheſſkoi, Pavdinſkoi, and Koſvinſkoi-kammen, are in ſeveral places covered with eternal ſnow. The ekatarinenburg Ural contains the eaſieſt mountains, thruſting up their ſummits for the moſt part only in hemiſpheres of greater or ſmaller dimenſions.

The kirghiſtzi Ural is almoſt entirely unknown to us; and we are not much more acquainted with the great deſert Ural. However, it is thought the latter goes on increaſing moſtly northwards, over the ſource of the Soſva, and at laſt ſtretches, almoſt parallel with the Oby, towards the frozen ocean; where

where it ſends out a branch of ſchiſtous mountains to the weſtward, which, with another neck of land, forms a bay in the Oby, terminating as if ſhattered to pieces, with a part of the ſame ſchiſtous quality, on the coaſt; but running on with its ſtrongeſt part to Novaia Zemlia, and perhaps iſſues alſo a branch weſtward through the lake, which is full of rocky iſlands, quite to the lapland mountains.

The Ural chain is of itſelf a main mountain, whoſe higheſt ridges, for the moſt part, conſiſt of granite, and of all the properly primitive rocky materials; the ſides being more of ſchiſtus and wakes; the fore-mounts, or promontories, eſpecially on the weſtern ſide, of ſandſtone, chalk, and gypſum, and the beds of marl, clay, ſand, &c. But this ſtatement admits of ſeveral exceptions. Thus, for inſtance, we ſee that the granite puſhes upwards not only in the higheſt, but alſo in very low points; that on the high ridges, together with the granite-knobs, there are likewiſe in many places porphyry, gneiſs, mica ſpathoſa, verd, ſerpentine, ſand, and marlſtone, micaceous ſchiſtus, and lapis calcareus ſalinus, which frequently ſeem to be laid on the granite, but often only placed beſide it; and that in the fore-mounts and beds, chalkſtone, ſchiſtus, ſandſtone, and gypſum, are ſo interchanged, that it is impoſſible to ſay which of theſe properly ſerves as the ſuppoſitum to the other. — The orenburg Ural has whole knobs of ſolid horny quartz, and many mountains of extenſive compaſs; for example, the

Guberlinſkoi, which almoſt entirely conſiſt of fine jaſper. The ſchiſtoſe track, or what is called the mountain-gangue, is not much more plainly perceivable on the eaſtern ſide of the principal ridge, than on the weſtern, where it ſeems almoſt entirely to fail. Gneiſs, micaceous ſchiſtus, pot-ſtone *, grey marl, and ſerpentine wake, grey clay ſchiſtus, trapp, and jaſper, interchange without any apparent regularity, and are variouſly interrupted by protruding lapis calcareus ſalinus. The caſe is juſt the ſame in the eaſtern ſub-mountains, with the thick and broken (moſtly free from petrifactions) chalkſtone, gypſum, black ſchiſtus and ſandſtone, beds of marl and clay, &c. the ſucceſſion whereof are different in almoſt every region. — On the weſt ſide ſucceed, moſtly cloſe by the high mountain, a grey and black clay ſchiſtus interchangeably with fine ſandſtone; and a powerful mountain, extending from the Belaie northwards over Solykamſk of thick chalkſtone, which forms in many places very high and broken mounts, and weſtwards is accompanied in its whole length by hills of gypſum and ſandſtone, in the former whereof rich ſalt-ſprings, and in the latter very productive beds of copper, lie concealed. Where this chalk-mount borders on the higher mountain, numerous and large neſts of iron-ore are every where met with. Whereas on the eaſt ſide, and on the ridges of the mountain, the richeſt

* Or, *Lapis ollaris*.

copper

copper and many iron ores break in the parting of the ſaline chalkſtone with marl-wake, the moſt powerful couches of iron-ore, of porphyry, and the gold-ore in the gneiſs.

In minerals the Ural mountains are very rich. We find beautiful ſorts of granite, porphyry, excellent jaſper, fine quartz, petroſilex, pebbles, whet-ſtones, flints, agates, chalcedonies, large mountain cryſtals, ſmoky topazes*, fine amethyſts, chryſolites, porcelain and pipe-clay, bolus, ſhelly feldſpar, ſerpentine, pot-ſtone, window-micæ, aſbeſtus, and amianthus; beautiful marbles, table ſchiſtus, gypſum, flowers of ſpar, turf, coals, mineral oils, naphtha, native ſulphur, markaſites; foſſil ſalts, ſources of common ſalt, bitter lakes, alum, vitriolic earths, ſaltpetre, natron; iron, copper, gold, and ſpecimens of ſilver and lead. For working of the gold, copper, and iron, very extenſive and productive fabrics are here erected.

The Ural mountains are alſo very amply endowed with woods. Their trees conſiſt of the ſeveral ſorts of pines, birch, fir, cedar, larch, aſpin, alder; and on the ſouth-weſtern ſide a few oaks, elms, lindens, &c.

In the vallies adjoining to this range of mountains we everywhere meet with rich and verdant glens and dales and meads in alternate ſucceſſion; accordingly the breed of cattle is not inconſiderable. Of

* Smoky topazes, mean brown rock cryſtals.

wild beaſts and birds they contain great plenty. Among them may be reckoned ſables, beavers, rein-deer, elks, &c.

In the ordinary courſe of years they abound in waters; and the various elevations are copiouſly ſupplied with beautiful pellucid lakes, ponds, and numberleſs ſtreams, all teeming with fiſh. The principal rivers that here take their riſe are; the Sofva, the Tura, the Iſſet, the Ui, the Tobol, the Yemba, the Ural, the Bélaia, the Tſhuſſovaia, the Kamma, the Petſhora, &c.

The Altay mountains.

The mountains which, on ruſſian ground, belong to the ſyſtem of the high rocky ridges of Altay, take up the whole breadth between the Irtiſh and the Yeniſſey. They terminate, or rather depart from that mighty chain of mountains, which, as far as is hitherto known, ſtretch, in a ſouth-eaſtern direction, from the fortreſs of Semipalat on the Irtiſh, unite beyond the Yeniſſey, with the ſayane and baicalian, and in Dauria with the arguſinian or nertſhinſkian mountains, and thus fix the limits between Siberia and the chineſe empire from the Irtiſh to the Amoor.

The Altay mountains are called by the Chineſe, Altai-alin, and Ghin-ſhall, which ſignifies the Gold Mount. They are divided into the great and the leſſer Altay. The great Altay ſeparates the mongo-

lian Tartary from the empire of the ſoongorian Kalmucs and a ſmall part of Bukharia toward the weſt. This range proceeds in various windings toward the north-north-eaſt, here throws out ſeveral conſiderable ridges, between which the main ſources of the Yeniſſey, the Oby and the Irtiſh riſe, through Soongoria to the north-north-weſt, where they enter in conjunction with the leſſer Altay. The leſſer Altay parts Soongoria from the government of Kolhyvan, through which the aforeſaid ſtreams purſue their courſe over a great extent of country.

The greateſt height of theſe mountains is without the limits of the ruſſian territory. They run out in general from one of the higheſt points, known by the name of Bogdo, over the ſources of the Irtiſh, north-weſtward between that and the lake Teletzkoi-ozero, and by this lake and the Yeniſſey north-eaſtward into the ruſſian empire. The whole of the ruſſian ſhare of the Altay mountains, therefore, naturally falls into two great halves; one of which comprehends the entire ſpace between the Irtiſh and the Bii*; and the other, the ſpace between the Oby and the Yeniſſey. For the ſake of more accurate intelligibility the former is ſtyled the kolhyvan, and the latter the kuſnetzkoi mountains. Both include the greater part of the government of Kolhyvan, and belong entirely to the department of the kolhyvano-voſkreſenſkoi mine-works. The former

* Farther on the Oby.

half, namely, the mountains between the Irtiſh and the Bii, or Oby, might, on account of its mineral wealth already known, be ſtyled by way of eminence, the Altaian ore-mountains.

Of all the mountains in the central Aſia, thoſe of Altay ſeem the mightieſt, the moſt extenſive, and the moſt conjoined. They do not, however, throughout bear the name of Altay. The lofty track which parts the government of Kolhyvan from the chineſe Soongoria divides into two great joints. One from the Irtiſh to the lake Teletzkoe and the head of the Abakan, is properly the leſſer Altay, or Khrebet Khalta; the other, from the Abakan to the Yeniſſey, is called Sabinſkoy Khrebet. In the former are the greateſt elevations of the kolhyvanian, and in the latter thoſe of the kuſnetzkian mountains; they therefore form the baſis of all the ribs or mountain-tracks that ſhoot out from it to the north-weſt and to the north, which at laſt loſe themſelves towards the Frozen-ocean in prodigious plains; while towards the ſouth, as it appears, they ſtill continue to ſoar to an uncommon height over a long and broad extent of territory.

Right in the midſt of theſe tall mountains, ſays Dr. Pallas, and on the frontier line between the ſoongorian and mongolian deſerts, Bogdo-Dola, or Bogdo-Alim (the almighty mount), ſo eminently famous amongſt all theſe nations, lifts its pointed heads; which, if not one of the higheſt, is yet,

by

by its craggy, ſteep, and irregular form, with all the appearance of having been thrown up by ſome violent agitation of the earth, the moſt ſtriking of all the powerful mountains of theſe parts. North-weſtward from it, all the main mountain as far as Altain-Kul, or Teletzkoe-ozero, is called the Golden Mountain. Eaſtwards towards Mongoley, more to the ſouth, runs a ſtrong mountain Changay, and ſouthwards a powerful ſnow mountain Maſſart, which either annexes to the tybetan, or to the northerly mountains in India. Laſtly, weſtwards the main mountain throws out an arm, moſtly bare of foreſts, and all over as if ſtudded with rocks, called Allakoola, i e. the Checquered Mountain, by the Tartars Ala-Tau, which connects with the kirghiſtzian Alginſkoi-Sirt. Between the Muſſart and the Alak ariſe the rivers Sir, or Shir, and Tallas, which flow to the lake Aral, northwards out of the Allakoola, the Ili rolling its waters to the Balkaſh-noor, the Emil and the Tſhui, which is ſometimes dry; and north-weſtward from the Bogdo the upper Irtiſh takes its ſource. Probably the great Altay mountains concatenate with the tybetan mountains by the Muſſart, and perhaps by other chains. For all the deſerts between Siberia and India, and the eaſtern Bukharia, are nothing but alternate hills and plains, and extremely rocky. That alſo the Altay mountains muſt make an uninterrupted partition between the weſtern ſteppes and the eaſtern regions, is ſhewn by the ſteppe-animals, particularly

particularly the antelopes or ſteppe-goats, who ſhun the mountains, and even in Aſia go no farther than to the weſtern range of the Altais, and are come from it northwards to the woody regions that accompany the Oby.—The ſnow-mountain, which appears northwards on the ſiberian frontiers from the Irtiſhtau between the Buktarma and the Katunia, and quite into the angle formed by the rivers Ina and Belaia which flow into the Tſharyſh, is, as it were a diviſion, a ſhort branch, a nook of the great Altais, which by ſome is uſually called the little Altay, and which darts its ſtupendous pinnacles above the clouds. It riſes everywhere bold and ſteep, and ſtands (eſpecially in the vale where the Ina unites with the Tegerek) like a towering wall, behind which the mountains riſe conſtantly higher in irregular gradations, and at laſt ſtrike up in ſeparate points. The ſame ſteep vale there parts the ſchiſtoſe mountain from the chalk-ſtone mountain, which hence ſpreads northwards between the Ina and the Loktefka quite to the Tſharyſh. Over the ſchiſtoſe mountain the ſnowy ſummits riſe conically out of a granite mixed with ſchorl and mica. The ſame granite ſhews itſelf again in chalky promontories, with the ſchiſtus lying on it; and forms the Revnovaia Sopka, as it is called, at the ſame time, right in the boſom of the chalky mountains, the ſtill loftier Sinaia Sopka. Granite appears likewiſe throughout in low, rocky, craggy mounts and ſingle cliffs, between the rivers Ubo

and

and Alay, where the mountain has already fallen deep towards the plain, and likewiſe about the lake Kolhyvan. The rich ore-mountain of Kolhyvan places itſelf immediately between and about this granite-ſtock; and thence ariſes an apparent confuſion in the ſtrata through the whole of the Kolhyvan ore-mountain. On the Irtiſh the ſchiſt-mountain extends latitudinally as far as Semipalatnaia. The wavy red ſand ſchiſt ridges between the Shulba and the Ufa, ſeem to reſt upon the ſchiſt. Between the Alay and the mountains ſtretching to the Irtiſh, is alſo a perfect plain, without a trace of hilly ſcites, with many ſalt-pools and petty lakes, and the promontories everywhere gently decline towards this plain, and are completely deſtitute of foreſts. Genuine hornſchiſt and jaſper are here not to be found in the whole mountain, neither, except the outermoſt hills that proceed by the Irtyſh below Semipalatnaia, is any true floets mountain perceptible.

The principal part of the Altay mountains that fall to the ſhare of Ruſſia, is the range of Kolhyvan, or the proper ore-mountains of Altay. For the more convenient comprehenſion of it, it may be reduced to the following ſubdiviſions, namely: 1. The Kolhyvano-voſkreſenſkoi. 2. The Korbolikinſkoi. 3. The Alaiſkoi. 4. The Ubinſkoi. 5. The Buktarminſkoi. 6. The Teleſkoi; and, 7. The Tſhariſkoi mountains.

" The

" The Kolhyvano-voſkreſenſkoi mountains have their appellation from the adjacent lake Kolhyvan, (which has given its name to the whole chain between the Irtiſh and the Oby, as well as to the government) and from the firſt copper-mine, called Voſkreſenſkoi. It is bounded on the ſouth by the granitic ridge which parts this mountain from the korbolikinſkoi. It is confined to the eaſt by the deep valley in which the line of the preſent forepoſts is drawn, and by the lofty tigeretzkoi ſnow-mountains; and bounded on the north by the river Tſharyſh, whoſe courſe is accompanied by conſiderably high ſchiſt and chalk mountains; towards the weſt it loſes itſelf in the north-weſtern ſteppe. — The greateſt elevation of theſe mountains is the Sinnaia-Sopka *, which is computed to aſcend 2814 pariſian feet above the level of the ſea. At its middle and greateſt height it conſiſts of a moſtly coarſe granite, conſiſting of ſpatum campeſtre, quartz, and blackiſh micæ. On the north ſide it abuts extremely ſteep againſt the Bielo lake, under which appear leafy clay and table-ſchiſt which reſt upon the foot of the blue mountain, and covers the granite between it and the tigeretſkoi granatic ſnow-mountain, ſtill thirty verſts farther to the eaſt. On the eaſt ſide it in like manner ſtruts boldly againſt the great Biela, and more to the weſt, in the angle formed by the little Biela with the great Biela. In

* The Blue mountain.

this

this angle, at the foot of the Blue mountain, is found ſchiſtus and chalk-ſtone, in which latter are ſome little cavities containing lapis calcareus ſtalactites. From the little Biela the mountains riſe again towards the ſouth, elevating themſelves to the Revennaia Sopka, or Rhapontic ſummit, which is ſurrounded by the ore-mountains, and conſiſting of ſchiſtus corneus, mixed ſparingly with mica ſpathoſa and crumbs of mica campeſtris, in which latter are a few ſmall hollows wherein are found ſtalactites. Towards the weſt, from the blue mountain, runs the granite-mountain range, in bulk from fifteen to thirty verſts, interrupted by a multitude of vallies, proceeding an hundred verſts to the Alay, and there unites with the alaiſkoi granite hills. The northern foot of this granite-ridge runs under powerful ſchiſtus and chalk mountains, in and between which the two firſt kolhyvan mines were dug.

Another mighty ridge of granite runs from the Blue mountain northwards to the river Tſharyſh, under-run on the weſtern ſide by ſchiſtus and chalk, which again farther on extend to the yaroſſkoi and the tigeretzkoi ſnow-mountain. The component parts of all theſe granite-ridges, are various; one while the feldſpar, another time the quartz, has the aſcendant; now the component parts are coarſe, and then ſo delicate, and ſo poor in micæ, that one might be induced to take the granite proceeding from them for ſandſtone.

This

This tract of mountains is uncommonly rich in filvery, copper, and zink ores; for in this tract lie the old and firſt Voſkreſenſkoi, and Kolhyvaniſkoi, Golovinſkoi, Bogoyavlenſkoi, Bobrovnikofſkoi, Kleopinſkoi, Guſtokaſhinſkoi, Medvedeffkoi, Loktoffkoi, Beroſoffkoi, Murſinſkoi, Monaſtirſkoi, and Tſhakyrſkoi mines, of which, however, ſcarcely any are in work at preſent.

The KORBOLIKINSKOI mountain has its name from the brook Korbolikha, which runs through it. It is incloſed from the ſouth, the eaſt, and the weſt, by granite mountains; but on the north-eaſt is bounded by the great Biela, accompanied by ſchiſt and chalk mountains. It conſiſts, except in ſome few points which are covered with ſea-bottom materials, for the moſt part of clay-ſchiſt, marlwake, lapis corneus, and quartz, which here and there are underlaid by granite and porphyry. Notwithſtanding the height of theſe mountains, between the origin of the Korbolicha and the little Biela, is conſiderable, yet the mountain on the great Biela, ſuch as the Revennaia-Sopka, and the Karaulnaia-Sopka remarkably diſtinguiſh themſelves on account of their ſingle ſummits. Its mineral conſiſts of a ſchiſtoſe marlwake and hornſchiſt, wherein here and there hornblend and crumbs of feldſpar are to be met with.

The chain of mountains in conjunction with the north-weſtern and ſouth-eaſtern rivers of the Revennaia-Sopka, the Blue mountain, and the Kolhyvan granite

granite mountain; and in the ſouth-eaſt, after they have gone about the kliutſheffkoi majak, terminate at the foot of high granitic ſnow-mountains. The Revennaia Sopka is the higheſt point of theſe mountains, being eſtimated at 2213 pariſian feet higher than the Shlangenberg; it is ſaid not to conſiſt of granite, but of firm hornſchiſtus. In this korbolikinſkoi tract of mountains, the richeſt of all the Altay mine-works are carried on. For here is the crown of them, the Slangenberg (Smeinogorſkoi-Rudnik); and beſides that, the Maſhinſkoi, the Markſheiderſkoi, the Karamiſheffkoi, the Striſhkoffkoi, the Matveyeffkoi, the Tſherepanoffkoi, the Kommiſſarſkoi, the Goltzoffkoi, the Ivanoffkoi, the Piktoffkoi, the Lazurſkoi, the Haufenſkoi, and the Semmenoffkoi mines.

The ALAISKIAN mountains compriſe that range which advances from the origin of the Alay to the two ſides of this river, and between it and the Ouba and Irtiſh, and runs out into the great ſaline plain, which is ſkirted by the Alay, the Irtiſh, and the Oby. This range, as far as the ſtream Shemanaika, falling into the Ouba, and on the branch of the Alay Talofka, conſiſts almoſt entirely of granite and porphyry, riſes between the Oby and the Irtiſh to a very conſiderable height, and ſeems to under-run the korboli-kinſkian and ſolotaraſhian mountains, which, between the Irtiſh and the Alay, is properly the fore mountain of the Alaiſkian. Together with granite and porphyry here is found alſo mica and clayſchiſtus,

clayſchiſtus, marlwakes, and ſaline chalk-ſtone, on the right of the Alay, (where the granite ridge proceeds down to the lokteſſkoi ſavode,) trapp and breccia, on the Shulba black ſchiſtus, chalk, and ſandſtone, and farther down gypſum, clay, marl, and beds of ſand.

The higheſt ſummit of theſe mountains is mount Sludina in the diſtrict of the Alaiſkoiſavode, which is calculated to be 1672 feet higher than the Shlangenberg. From this elevation we ſee the tigeretzkoi and buktarminſkoi (or oubinſkoi) ſnow-mountains, as plainly as though they were only a few verſts off. The pinnacle of this mountain conſiſts of a granite compoſed of feldſpar, quartz, and black micæ, of pretty coarſe grains. In the lower points the component parts are ſmaller, and inſtead of the micæ a bornblend takes the aſcendant. In ſome places both are wanting, and the granite aſſumes a ſandſtone-like appearance. At its northern foot, four verſts from the melting-houſes, chalk-ſtone breaks with marine productions. — In this part of the Altay ore-mountains are the mines Medvedeffkoi, Ploſkogorſkoi, Shemaniſhinſkoi, Shulbinſkoi, Solotukinſkoi, Lokteffkoi, &c.

The OUBINSKOI mountains, otherwiſe called the VOBROFSKOI, form, at the ſources of the Ouba and Ulba, a conſiderable ridge, towering in lofty ſummits to high ſnow-mountains, ſending out its branches on both ſides of thoſe rivers, eſpecially between them, and at its foot is bordered by the Irtiſh. The greateſt

greateſt height of it riſes near Bobroſkaia with porphyry, which in the north and ſouth is frequently changed for granite, whoſe ſummits, one while with gentle, and then with bold aſcents, ſurround the moſt delightful vales, abounding in odoriferous herbs of various kinds. — In the region about the fortreſs Ouſtkamenegorſk, the granite is under-run * by ſchiſtoſe earth, in antient times explored by the Tſhudi, who took pleaſure in mining. Higher up the Irtiſh, as far as the Buktorma, mountains of ſchiſtus frequently appear, in which copper ore is dug, and which here and there is under-run by porphyry and granite, but in many places are covered with chalk. The mountains in which the ſources of the Ouba riſe, conſiſt of granite, porphyry, marlwake, petroſilex, and quartz. Towards the eaſt the ouvinſkoi ſnow-mountains raiſe their lofty ſummits, which, meaſured with the line, were found to be 5691 engliſh feet above the water of the river Ouba which devolves its pleaſant ſtream beneath its monſtrous cliffs. In theſe mountains have been lately found the filipofſkoi mines, on the Ulba, which promiſe great ſucceſs; together with the mines talofſkoi, nicolaefſkoi, bereſefſkoi, iliñſkoi, &c.

The BUKTARMINSKOI mountain begins in the ſuperior region of the river Buktarma, at the frontier-heights between the chineſe and the ruſſian empires, declines from the ſouth towards the north

* Unterteuft.

and weſt, and accompanies the afore-mentioned ſtream, on both its ſides, till its confluence with the Irtiſh. It reaches to eaſt and north-eaſt as far as the mountains that run along the Kokuſun, and towards the north up to thoſe that follow the courſe of the Ulba. From the binſkoi ſnow-mountains up to the head of the Uiman (which falls into the Kokoſun) it forms a powerful ridge, riſing almoſt throughout in high ſummits of ſnow, and on this ſide extends its greateſt height to the ſource of the laſt-mentioned river. This huge mountain, as yet very little known, and partly inacceſſible, conſiſts, as far as we know of it, in its higheſt points of various kinds of granite, porphyry, and flint breccia. But in its chaſms, and particularly towards the ſhores of the main or moſt conſiderable rivers, different ſorts of ſchiſtus, chalk-ſtone, marl, breccia, and ſand-ſtone, are frequently met with. Jaſper is found in abundance, with porphyry, and trapp, in the ſuperior regions. Of the chalk-mountains ſeen in the lower confines of the Buktarma, ſome are very craggy and have a number of caverns. In theſe mountains there has hitherto been but one mine explored, the Buktormniſkoi, with any hope of ſucceſs.

The TELETZKOI mountain has its name from the lake Teletzkoe, (Teletzkoe ozero) on one of the greateſt eminences of the Altay, and from which the river Oby iſſues. It forms, with its lofty ſummits, the boundary between Siberia and the Soongorey, ſtrikes its powerful ridges down betwixt the lake

lake and the Katunia; and, after having turned round the eaſt ſide and the lake, unites with the kuſnetzkoi mountains. This diviſion is one of the greateſt, but at the ſame time the wildeſt and moſt inacceſſible of all the altaian ore-mountains; hence it is, that its quality and contents are ſtill but very little known. However, thus much we know, that very powerful granite and porphyry mountains are in its range, and that the earth near and upon it yields jaſper, flint breccia, hornſchiſtus, white, (probably ſaline) chalk-ſtone, coloured marble, black-ſchiſtus, marl, ſand-ſtone, and in theſe there are iron, orgentaceous copper, and lead ores, naphtha, aſphaltus, &c. The mountains to the right of the Katunaia ſeem to be particularly rich in ores.

The TSHARISKOI mountains are of very great extent. They compriſe the whole ſpace between the higheſt ſources of the Ulba, Ouba, and the Kokoſun (till where the Tſhuya falls into the Kokoſun) and between the courſe of this latter river and the Katunaia, and carries its powerful forked ridges along both ſides of the Tſhariſh, from its origin to its diſemboguing into the Oby. Its direction is from eaſt to weſt and north-weſt; and in the ſouth it is parted, by a rude valley, from the oubinſkoi ſnow-mountains. In ſeveral places it riſes to a great height, heaving up enormous pinnacles, which in ſome parts are covered with never-failing ſnow, ſuch as the Tigeretzkoi, the torgonſkoi, the tſhariſkoi, the katunayaiſkoi, the annuyiſkoi, and the italitzkoi,

ſnow-mountains, which for the moſt part conſiſt of granite, porphyry, jaſper, and flint breccia. The Tigeretzkoi alone, to a conſiderable height, conſiſt of marble, which contains a multitude of ſea-ſhells. Theſe in general are found to be 4392 pariſian feet higher than the Shlangenberg. One of the higheſt points is the Koſſipnaia-Sopka, (the ragged head,) conſiſting of monſtrous blocks of hoary granite. In ſeveral places of theſe wild and extenſive mountains, iron, copper, and lead ores have been dug up, but no regular works have been as yet ſet up.

The ſecond half of the ruſſian ſhare of the Altaian mountains, namely, the kuſnetzkoi range, is ſtill, for the greateſt part, almoſt unknown, and inacceſſible. It may be reduced to two ſubdiviſions, whereof one ſhall compriſe the kuſnetzkoi proper, and the other the kraſnoyarſkoi mountains, together filling the whole vaſt ſpace between the Oby and the Yeniſſey. Theſe mountains throw up, on the Mraſs and between the ſources of the Tom and the Yuſs, ſome very conſiderable ſummits, many of them covered with eternal ſnow. In regard to its inward conſtitution and frame, we have as yet but few authentic accounts. However, from hence are brought various ſorts of granite, porphyry, jaſper, breccia, ſaline chalk-ſtone, marble with ſea-ſhells, horn-ſtone, ſlate, ſerpentine, mountain-cryſtal, chalcedony, and carnelians. On the Kondoma, are productive iron-mines: in the region of the origin

origin of the Tſhumiſh the ſalahirſkoi ſilver-mines continue to be worked with great expectations; and at Kraſnoyarſk ſeveral copper-mines were formerly worked, but are now abandoned *. In the laſt mentioned circle is alſo an eſtabliſhment for ſmelting iron-ore, belonging to the merchants Savelief.—The higheſt mountains here to be ſeen in the ſouth are about the ſource of the Abakan, where the famous mount Sabin, or Shabina-Dabahn, raiſes his ſnowy head to a ſtupendous height, and

* In the diſtrict of Kraſnoyarſk, to the left of the Yeniſſey, (ſays Mr. Pallas) the ſchiſtus is ſeen lying quite up to the ſteep ſoaring granite mountain, and is rich in ore; the chalk-mountain is but very narrow about the Teſs and the brook Koxa, and then follow northwards red ſand ſchiſtus and marl ſtratum. Beyond the Yeniſſey we find the ſchiſtus-mountains much more northward ſtill, as far as above the upper region of the brooks Siſine and Oubei, and the river Mana; and the chalk-cliff mountain runs as far as to the confluence of the Mana with the Yeniſſey, and therefore too near upon the town of Kraſnoyarſk, where the Flœtze proceed. The chalk mountain here ſends out a rib weſtward under the name of Arga, which preſſes weſtwards out of its direct courſe to the Yus, flowing much higher than the Yeniſſey, and its continuation the river Tſhulym. From Kraſnoyarſk north-weſt and eaſtward are pure Flœtze and level country, likewiſe the ſtraight road thence to Irkutſk through nothing but low foreſts, which extend northward as far as the upper Tunguſka, and where at moſt but ſmall ſletze ridges appear, ſo that in theſe parts the ſchiſtus-mountain muſt be much leſs powerful, as the granite yet extends in its former breadth and direction, and for example, on the river Ouda, as far as about the brooks Shelma, Nerek, and Sob, where are at preſent the beſt veins of muſcovy glaſs.

the Ittem, on the borders of the brook Shantigyr.

The major part of the Altay mountains is more bald than woody. The largeſt foreſts are in the low countries about the Alay, the Oby, and the Yeniſſey. The ſpecies of wood are, the pinus ſylveſtris, the birch, the aſpin, the pinus picea, the pinus abies, the alder, the willow, and noble larch-trees *, and cedars.—The principal rivers of theſe mountains are; the Irtiſh and its collateral ſtreams the Buktarma, the Ulba, and the Uba; the Oby, with its main rivers, the Alay, the Tſharyſh, the Tſhulym, the Tom, the Katunia, the Yus, and the Abakan, which falls into the Yeniſſey. The ſuperior regions of the mountains are uncommonly exuberant in waters.

The Sayane mountains.

The nethermoſt ſnow-tops and granitic mainridges determine, at the Yeniſſey, and thence as far as the Baikal, the boundaries between Siberia and the Mongoléy; ſo that only the northern ſide of the mountains belongs to Siberia. The granite-mountain ſtands here very bluff, eſpecially in the region of the Ouſs, which, to the right, falls into the Yeniſſey. The Yeniſſey itſelf rolls forth from between high ſnowy ſummits which hem it in with rocks, into a monſtrous vale; as in general all the ſuperior rivers flow in very high and dreary moun-

* Pinus larix.

tains.

tains. Behind the Ouſs is a very lofty mountain, Khoin-Dabahn; and, more eaſtward, over the Ouba, a wide-extended with cragged rocky high-ſoaring ſummits, the mountain Irgentargak, which continues for above 500 verſts, quite up to the ſources of the Beikem and the Shiſhkiſh. Hard by this mountain follows, to the north-weſt of the lake Koſſogol, the frontier-mountain Nukutu-Dabahn, (or Khangai), whence the Karin falls into that lake; then, about the origin of the brook Khanga begins the mountain Gurban-Dabahn*, and reaches to beyond the ſources of the river Ouro; where, at a mountain Kiſimktu-Dabahn, begins the great chain Oudin-Dſœn, and, between the Vida and the rivulet Selenga, from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, forms the ſiberian boundary. Another branch of lofty mountains proceeds under the name of Turon-Dabahn, between the ſources of the Dſhida and Tampik, on one, and on the river Irkut on the other ſide, as far as to the Baikal.

The whole range (whoſe higheſt ridges, neareſt to the Yeniſſey, are called, Sayanſkoi-Krebet, but towards the origin of the Oka, Krebet Khandabaga) conſiſts, more or leſs, of ragged granite and porphyry ſummits, which interchange with various kinds of ſchiſtus; and farther onwards, between the Yeniſſey and the Angara, is under-run with powerful ſtœtzes of chalk, marl, clay, and ſand.—

* The three mountains.

The granite in many of the hills, is ſo coarſe-grained, that the beſt mines here are of muſcovy-glaſs. In theſe mountains, about the Yeniſſey, are found numbers of what are called old tſhudi mines; notwithſtanding that their mineral contents are ſtill almoſt entirely unknown; and except iron-ore, but little has been gained from them.

Though the range is here and there quite bald, yet, for the moſt part, at leaſt in the vallies, it is foreſted. The ſpecies of trees are, the pinus ſylveſtris, the pinus abies, the pinus picea, the birch, and excellent larches and cedars.—The principal rivers of the ſayane mountains are: the Yeniſſey, the Tuba, the Mana, the Kan, the Byruſſa, the Ouda, the Oka, the Irkut, &c.

The mountains of the Baikal.

This range of mountains has nearly the ſame direction with the Baikal-ſea, accompanying it on both ſides from ſouth to north and north-eaſt, runs down to the weſt on the right of the Angara, where it flattens in a moraſſy ſteppe of prodigious extent; to the eaſt it advances from the origin of the Lena, on both ſides of that river, and here likewiſe dies away in a wide-extended-flœtz-ridge. In general it is a very craggy high-thrown mountain, partly conſiſting of granite, partly of flint-breccia and chalk-ſtone. In the inferior regions of the Angara and the Lena its flœtz-mountain greatly declines, and frequently

frequently produces coal. From the upper angarian ridge, there runs, as it ſhould ſeem, a branch weſtward, through the region between the podkammenaia and the niſhnaia Tunguſka, away over the Yeniſſey, and conſiſts probably of mere flœtz-mountains. About the north-eaſtern part of the Baikal, the upper Angara, the Mama and the river Vitim, where lie the famous pits of muſcovy-glaſs, all the mountain is granitic *. The mineral contents of theſe mountains are as yet by far not thoroughly

* What Mr. Laxmann relates of theſe granite mountains deſerves here to be quoted. "On the ſouth ſide of the weſt end "of the Baikal, which is called Kultuk, a granite ridge extends "along that ſea. The promontories, above fifty fathom high, "ſteep, eight hundred fathom long, and of far greater breadth, "conſiſt entirely of milk-white quartz, which is ſeldom known "to form whole mountains (1). Then follows a fine-grained, "one while quartzy-micaceous-ſpatous, and then only quartz-"micaceous, granite; and this compoſition of granite is pro-"greſſively reſt throughout in chinks, a curious circumſtance "but rarely ſeen in old granite-mountains, and much doubted "of by ſome orographers. Some three hundred fathom from the "quartzy excreſcence ſeveral parallel gangues appear, which on "the eaſtern declivity, towards the brook Sludeinaia, extend "from weſt to eaſt. The moſt powerful of them is about twelve "feet, the reſt are ſmaller, and fall almoſt perpendicularly. The "mighty Salband, I might almoſt ſay, the proſtrate, conſiſts of "black ſcaly mica. To this ſucceeds a fine-grained, greeniſh, "brittle quartz, ſprinkled with green micaceous cryſtals. It "comprehends one third of the whole, and terminates in a "ſolid feldſpar, which fills the northern and larger portion of the

(1) In the Ural-mountains, however, ſeveral inſtances of it appear.

"gangue,

thoroughly known. The principal of what has been diſcovered in them, are coals, aſphaltus, ſulphur-ſources; native ſulphur, alum, common-ſalt-ſources, lapis lazuli, muſcovy-glaſs, carnelians,

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" gangue, in which frequently priſmatic ſchœrl cryſtals are " incloſed. The ſchœrl is green, tranſparent, or cloudy, of " a quadrangular or pyramidal form, and ſome cryſtals are al- " moſt five feet long, and fifteen inches in diameter; but theſe " are cubically ſplit; wherefore it is not poſſible to get them " whole. Alſo micaceous cryſtals are frequently interſperſed in " the feldſpar. Laſtly, the feldſpar lies on the quartzy granite, " in which but little ſpar and mica is interſperſed. To con- " clude, the gangue is viſibly along the ſteep ſouth-eaſtern ſide " of the mountain quite to the water level of the Sludenaia, " and in the holes ſandy quartz, which the ſpring-floods have " waſhed through a grot four fathom deep and two fathom " high. The leafy greeniſh mica appears, as was remarked of " the ſchœrl, in priſmatic pyramidal cryſtals of from three to " nine ſides.—The learned are inclined to pronounce the whole " region of the Baikal to be the effect of ſome great convulſion " of nature; but in the range of mountains about the weſt end " of this ſea, which is called Kultuk, all ſeems to me to have " ariſen by a gentle and eaſy formation. The forementioned " ſtructure of the mountains ſhews how the minerals are depo- " ſited according to their quantities, and in conformity to the " laws of relation. The cryſtals may perhaps have already receiv- " ed their flats and points as they part dry and moiſt." See Crell's Chymical Ann. 1785, part iii. p. 265.—Of ſimilar gangues in granite, various examples are ſeen in the mountains of Altai and Ural; eſpecially in the latter the beautiful amethyſts, at Murſinſk, are broke out of quartz gangues in granite.

natural pruſſian blue, and ſpecimens of iron, copper, and lead *.

Some tracts of mountains about the Baikal, for example, the Burgundu and others, are ſo high,

* From a manuſcript containing the mineralogical obſervations of M. Gruber, in the parts adjacent to the Baikal, I extract the following: "The country round Irkutſk, for ſome hundred "verſts on the Angara, and above a thouſand verſts on the "Lena, is entirely of the floetz kind; but theſe ſtreams have "moſtly high banks. In the confines of Irkutſk is a great deal of "coal; and, near the city, on the bank of the Angara, in a "ſubverted mountain, five veins of it, each a quarter of an arſhine "in thickneſs, at a diſtance of about two arſhines above one "another. — Salt-ſprings are here in many places. Not far from "the Baikal magneſia vitriolata is prepared from the water of a "lake; and eighty verſts from Irkutſk, on the Angara are manufac-"tories of common ſalt. From Irkutſk four hundred and thirty-"four verſts, on the Lena, extends a bed of copper-ore, which "ſeems to reach, for nine hundred verſts, to the river Kiren. "The country, by the latter river, is far more hilly, and conſiſt-"ing partly of chalk-ſtone, whence ſeveral mineral ſources "proceed. Nor are ſpecimens of copper wanting. Iron-ores "and ferruginous ſtones are everywhere met with in abundance. "On the Lena, here and there, are ſallies of argentiferous glantz "galena, interſperſed in the chalk-ſtone, and at times appears in "lumps of two or three pounds. It was firſt explored about "fifty years ago by Meſſrs. Make and Kutuzof. They "keep four machines at work at the ſaid copper-floetz, near the "villages Botova and Shemanova. The ores are green-copper, "blue-copper, brown-copper, copper-glas, fahlertz-ores, and "malachquite. The gangues are calcareous and ſandy. The "narrower the gangue, the richer it is. The proportion is one "fourth to forty per cent. copper, but ſcarcely a trace of ſilver. "On an average one hundred pood of ore yields four pood of "good copper."

that

that they are covered with never-waſting ſnow. In that ſea or lake itſelf many lofty and ſteep cliffs aſcend above the waters as iſlands, ſome whereof conſiſt of ſolid white quartz. — The mountains are partly bare, but for the moſt part decked with foreſts. The moſt uſual kinds of trees are the pinus ſylveſtris and the birch; but here are likewiſe great numbers of larches and cedars. — The moſt conſiderable rivers which derive their ſtreams hence, are the Selenga, the Angara, the Lena, the Vilui, and the Tunguſa.

The Nertſhinſkoi mountains.

Theſe mountains, otherwiſe called the mountains of Daouria, extend from the Baikal and the ſources of the Selenga and the Amoor, down the two ſides of thoſe rivers; on one ſide as far as where the Argoon falls into the Amoor, and on the other ſide up to the heads of the Niuſa and the Oldekon, where it annexes itſelf to the ſpacious range of Okhotz, or Krebet Stanovoi. It conſequently includes the whole ſpace between the Selenga and the Argoon, take the ſame direction with the courſe of the Amoor and the Ingoda from weſt to north-eaſt, and comes down to us from the Mongoley, under the name of Yablonoi-Krebet, or apple-mountain. It has its greateſt elevations about the origin of the Amoor and the Ingoda, where it conſiſts of very ragged granite tops, high and ſteep. Between the courſe of the Ingoda and the ſources of the

the Khilok and Vitim it is much ſmaller, notwithſtanding which, it ſeems to ſtand very high. It here forms a ridge, pretty uniform in its progreſs, woody, and well watered, and conſiſts for the moſt part of pure crumbled granite.

That part of this range incloſed by the Amoor and the Argoon, is properly called the Nertſhinſkoi chain of ore-mountains, (from the city of Nertſhinſk, ſtanding on the brook Nertſha, which falls into the Amoor,) is found to be the richeſt in minerals of any of the mountains hitherto explored in theſe regions. It produces beautiful kinds of granite, porphyry, jaſper, a great quantity of chalcedonies, carnelians, onyx, agate, hornſtone, large ſmoky topazes, aqua-marine, hyacinth, and topaz-coloured ſchœrl, genuine topaz and beryl, &c. granites, fine feldſpar glandules, ſerpentine, aſbeſtus, nephrites, chalk-ſtone, ſlate, gypſum, excellent river ſpar; ſalt-lakes, vitriol pyrites, alum-ore, native ſulphur, coals, warm ſprings; zink, iron, copper, and a remarkable quantity of lead-ore, containing ſilver and gold, of which, ſince the commencement of this century, a great many mines have been opened, and whereof ſeveral are ſtill in full work. Theſe regions preſent very numerous foreſts. The trees are pinus ſylveſtris, larch, birch, firs, cedars, &c.— The principal rivers here are, the Selenga, the Khilok, the Vitim, the Olekma, the Karenga, the Niuſa, the Oldekon, the Onon, the Ingoda, the Amoor, the Argoon, &c.

The mountains of Okhotſk.

This great chain, known under the name of Stanovoi-Krebet, borders upon the Nertſhinſkoi, or upon the Yablonoi-Krebet, near the region of the ſources of the Aldan and Oldekon, runs thence on one ſide northward on the Lena down to Yakutſk, and on the other ſide weſtward to the oudinſkoi gulf of the okhotſkoi ſea, which ſwarms with iſlands; proceeds round this to the upper Okhotſk, and ſtrikes out ſeveral branches in the parts between the Lena and the Indighirka, between this and the Kolyma, and between this and the Anadyr, where a part of the mountain runs out upon the tſhuſkoi promontory, while the other continues its courſe into the peninſula of Kamtſhatka.

All theſe extenſive mountainous regions are almoſt entirely unknown*. From the diſtrict of Okhotſk has

* To this partition range (1), ſays M. Pallas, between the ſources of the Vitim and the Nertſha, that mountain-ridge which runs between the barguſinian territory and the Kilok, as alſo the Yeravna-lake, ſtretches acroſs the ſource of the Vitim, of a great height, and much covered with foreſts, and is rich in all kinds of pyrites, poſſeſſes ſeveral warm baths, and runs away under the name of Stanovoi-Krebet, in an eaſtern direction, over the ſource of the Nertſha and the other ſtreams of the Shilka or Amoor, parting theſe and all the waters of the Amoor from the brooks of the Olekma. It ſhoots out a ſtrong ridge on the Olekma, which proceeds north-weſtward obliquely acroſs the Lena above Yakutſk, abruptly turns with one part on the ſhores of the

(1) The Yablonoi-Krebet.

eaſtern

has been brought jaſper, porphyry, and beautiful chalcedonies and carneoles, ſulphur-pyrites, native alum, agaricus aluminaris, mountain cryſtal, coals, &c. and there likewiſe are warm ſprings.

The mountain is for the moſt part not very abundant in woods. — Its principal rivers on the ruſſian or northern ſide, are: the Amga, the Aldan, the Uda, the Maia, the Yana, the Indighirka, the Kolyma, and the Anadyr.

The mountains of Kamtſhatka and the Eaſtern Iſlands.

The peninſula Kamtſhatka conſiſts of a rocky chain of mountains, which is bounded on the firm

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eaſtern ocean, and proceeds with another branch over the ſources of the rivers Uda, Aldan, Maia, and Yudoma, near upon the okhotſkian ſea, and diſperſes itſelf about the eaſtern entirely mountainous corner of Aſia, in ribs that run between the principal rivers. In this eaſtern-moſt part of Siberia, the mountain is indeed extremely ragged and dreary, even the elevation of the country around is very conſiderable; but the granite mountain ſeems there to decreaſe, and we know of no exceedingly high ſnow-ſummits, though the whole region is cold and rude, producing nothing but arctic and alpine plants even in the plains, and even in ſummer faſt frozen marſhes and vales, as in the arctic deſerts, are no rarities there. About the Biela and Yudoma, in like manner as about the Urak, this mountain has again an inconceivable quantity of red and green jaſper, of which whole chains are compoſed; whereas on the whole ſide of the ſiberian mountains, this ſpecies of ſubſtance, except perhaps here and there on the ſouth-ſide of the Yablonoi-Krebet, in Daouria, is no where to be perceived.

land

land by the penſhinſkian and anadyrſkian gulfs, and by the river Anadyr. On the ſouthern promontory the Kurilly iſlands are included in it, and towards the weſt it is connected with North America by the Aleutan iſlands. Either concerning the outward or inward mineralogical qualities of theſe inſular mountains, we have but very little information *: we only know that there are ſome volcanoes in Kamtſhatka. — The moſt conſiderable ſtream on this peninſula is the river Kamtſhatka.

* Kamtſhatka is a chain of mountains, contiguous to the eaſtern end of this main-ridge (1), forming one train with the whole ſuite with the very mountainous and rocky iſlands of Kurilly and Japan, which ſeem again to connect with the mountains which reach from Tybet through China. All theſe countries and iſlands ſeem to have ariſen, by ſubterraneous fires which ſtill continue to act, much more lately than Siberia. The eaſtern extremity of Aſia, as we know from the oppoſite north-weſt territory of America, is hilly throughout, and the ſhores for the moſt part broken off. All the newly-diſcovered iſlands betwixt theſe two quarters of the world are fragments and ſummits of mountains, of which thoſe lying neareſt to Kamtſhatka keep the bearing towards the ſouth-eaſt, while thoſe off the coaſt of America proceed in the chain of the Fox-iſlands towards the north-eaſt, and even in theſe directions have their oblong form. Between the eaſtern extremity of Tſhutſkoi-noſs, and the weſtern point of North America, lie diſperſed other little iſlands, under the name of Andreanoffkie-oſtrova, but concerning which we have no diſtinct accounts. Pallas.

(1) The Stanovoi-Krebet.

Of

Of the principal Plains of Ruſſia.

Great and numerous as the mountainous tracts of the ruſſian empire are, yet the far greater part of it conſiſts of plains and flats, whereof ſome are extraordinarily extenſive. They are known here under the name of Steppes. I will briefly delineate the chief of them.

The Steppe of Petſhora.

This plain is bounded on the north by the Frozen ocean and the White-ſea; to the weſt by the Dvina; to the eaſt by the Petſhora; and to the ſouth by the Floetz mountains, which, from the uralian chain ſtretch away weſtward acroſs the government of Vologda. It therefore properly lies between and on both ſides of theſe rivers. The ground is for the moſt part ſandy, very marſhy, thick ſtrewn with foreſts, and almoſt entirely uninhabited; the diſtricts about Archangel, Meſen, &c. excepted. The trees conſiſt principally in the pinus ſylveſtris, firs and birch, and on the elevations beautiful larches. This however is only to be underſtood of the ſouthern part; in the northern, by reaſon of the extreme cold, wood ſucceeds but badly. On this level are a great number of freſh, but not very large lakes; and, beſides the rivers already mentioned, many others are to be met with, eſpecially if we

conſider as a continuation of this great level, that plain which extends weſtward through the governments of Novgorod, Peterſburg, &c.

The Steppe of the Dniepr.

This comprehends the great plain which lies in the government of Ekatarinoſlaf, between the Dniepr and the Bogue; the krimean ſteppe on the left ſide of the Dniepr, and the whole ſpace which extends over the Donetz, away to the Don, and the ſea of Azof, and to the Euxine. This monſtrous plain which takes in the greateſt part of the governments of Ekatarinoſlaf, Taurida, and a part of Voronetch, Karkhof, and Kief, is in general of a very dry and ſandy quality, with many ſalt-lakes and ſalt-plots, and is as yet but very little inhabited; here and there indeed is a wood with oaks and other foreſt-trees, but for the moſt part bare of timber, yet for the uſes of paſturage and agriculture it is not only not unfit, but in many diſtricts is perfectly well adapted to them.

The Steppe of the Don and Volga.

This compriſes the whole ſpace between the Don, the Volga, and the Kuban*. It is a very great,

* Within theſe confines lies what is called the Kuman-ſteppe, which comprehends the whole ſpace from thence to where the Kuma flows out of the mountains, and reaches ſouthward to the banks of the Terek and the Caſpian ſea; northward to the other

great, extremely arid ſteppe, entirely deſtitute of wood and water, has but few inhabitants, and contains ſeveral ſalt-lakes, and ſalt-plots †. It ſpreads through the greater part of the government of Caucaſus and into thoſe of Ekatarinoſlaf and Saratof, where, in its ſandy and calcareous floetz-mountains ‡, it contains coals, ſulphur-pyrites, and warm-baths.

The Steppe of the Volga and Ural.

This extenſive plain comprehends, between the rivers Volga and Ural, all that flat country which

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other ſide of the Sarpa, and eaſtward as far as the Volga. In this ſteppe lie the ſalt-lakes of Aſtrakhan, ſome bitter lakes, warm ſources, &c. — The whole kumanian ſteppe, ſays Falk, has all the appearance of a dried-up ſea. It is a ſandy, part clayey and ſalt plain, without trees. But that it may have really been ſea-bottom, is highly probable, from the flat ſhores of the Caſpian and the ſea of Azof, from the ſhallowneſs of their coaſts, which is conſtantly gaining ground; from the equally low ſituation of the ſteppe, in which the Kuma, the Manitſh, &c. have ſcarcely any current, not to mention the general ſaltneſs that prevails, and the ſalt-places; from the ſaline lakes, and from the quantity of ſea-ſhells in the ſand of the ſteppe to be ſeen in every part of it, and from ſeveral other circumſtances.

† Solontſhi.

‡ Veiny or mineral-mountains. Floetz, among miners, is what does not run gangue-wiſe, but only horizontally in breadth, while above and beneath is ſolid ſtratum. In ſome places they are alſo called waving gangues: when a gangue dips under twenty degrees it is termed a floetz and the main fall muſt be taken out by the carrier.

formerly went under the name of the Kalmyk-ſteppe; and, between the Ural and the Yemba, a part of the kirghiſtzi-ſteppe lying within the ruſſian borders *. To the ſouth it makes the margin of the Caſpian ſea, and to the north it ſkirts the ſeetz-mountains that run out from the Ural-chain. This plain, for the moſt part ſandy, is greatly deficient in freſh water and wood; but is therefore the richer in rock-ſalts, and a multitude of ſalt-lakes that are very productive. It contains a great number of diſtricts well adapted to the purpoſes of agriculture and the breeding of cattle, but is very poorly inhabited. One part of it lies in the caucaſian, and the other in the oſinſkian government.

The Steppe of the Irtyſh.

Under this name I mean that great plain which extends between the Tobol and the Irtyſh, and

* It is termed the Kalmyk-ſteppe, becauſe, it was left in poſſeſſion of a horde of that nation, and by whom it was inhabited till their flight in 1771. The Kalmyks call it Gahſen, the deſert. Its weſtern part is denominated from the Volga, the ſouthern from the Caſpian, and the eaſtern from the Ural. It conſiſts of a far-ſtretching ridge of ſand-mountains, known under the name Rynpeſki, but for the moſt part of a prodigious ſandy plain. The aforeſaid ſand-ridge called by the Kalmyks, Narym, is ſaid to be between fifty and a hundred and fifty verſts in breadth, according to admeaſurements in ſeveral places, and extends from Obſhtſhei-Syrt, or the Ural-mountain, through the middle of the ſteppe, quite to the Caſpian ſea. The ground conſiſts of ſand, marl, and clay, frequently mixed with ſea-ſhells, and everywhere bears the moſt evident marks of its having been formerly, as well as the kumane ſteppe, bottom of the ſea.

between the latter the Alay and the Oby, as far as the influx of the Irtyſh into the Oby, compriſing an enormous territory. It is as it were over-ſtrewn with lakes of ſeveral kinds of ſalts, interſperſed among numerous foreſts of pines and firs and birch, in moſt places well calculated for paſturage and agriculture, but in proportion to their extent very thinly peopled. Between the Irtyſh and the Oby this plain incloſes alſo that fine well-watered level called the Barabinian-ſteppe, on which many conſiderable lakes are ſeen. The greateſt part of this whole ſteppe lies in the government of Tobolſk, but the other part in that of Kolhyvan *.

The

* Another part of this large plain, between the Iſchim and the Irtyſh, is called the iſchim-ſteppe, which particularly abounds in bitter lakes, but in all other reſpects reſembles the barabinian-ſteppe, and in which, as well as in the former, a great many antient tombs are met with. — The barabinian or barabinſkoi ſteppe, and diminutively the Baraba, occupies the ſpace between the Irtyſh and the Oby, ſouthward of the mountain, northward to the farther ſide of the Tara and beyond the river Tuy. This diffuſive region, in length from north to ſouth exceeding ſix hundred verſts, and full four hundred in breadth from weſt to eaſt, is all a flat, ſcarcely interrupted by a ſingle hill, though containing many freſh-water lakes, with ſome of bitter, and a few of common ſalt. This plain is for the moſt part of a good black ſoil, having the face of it enlivened by a number of pleaſant foreſts of birch. All ſerving to ſhew, ſays Mr. Falk, that the Baraba muſt have been one general bed of waters, and ſince far more moraſſy and replete with lakes than it is at preſent. Even in the memory of man, according to the affirmation of the

The Steppe of the Oby and Yeniſſey.

This includes the whole of that large tract beyond the Tſhulim (which falls into the Oby) between the Oby and the Yeniſſey, and extends to the ſhores of the Frozen-ocean. The beſt foreſts, however, are only found in the proximity of the mountain towards the ſouth. On the northernmoſt margin of the Frozen-ocean all the wood is low and ſtunted. The whole of this ſteppe lies in the government of Tobolſk.

The Steppe of the Yeniſſey and Lena.

This great tract of deſert is bounded by the Yeniſſey, the Tunguſka, and the Lena; reaching northward, like the former, to the Frozen-ocean, and partaking of the ſame nature and quality with it. One part lies in the government of Tobolſk, and the reſt in that of Irkutſk.

The Steppe of the Lena and Indigbirka.

The ſame account may ſerve for the region, little known, which lies a vaſt extended plain along the ſhores of the Frozen-ocean, between the Lena and the Kovyma, to the two ſides of the Indighirka, and is wholly in the government of Irkutſk.

Barabinzes, the diminution of the lakes, and the exſiccation of the pools, reed-plots, and marſhes, has been very obſervable, as well as the acquiſitions thus made by the firm land.

SECTION IV

WATERS.

Of the Seas forming the Boundaries of the Ruſſian Empire.

I. *The Frozen or the Northern ocean.*

THE Ruſſians called this ſea, in antient times, Morè Muremanſkoe, but at preſent Ledovitoë morè. By the Goths it was termed Gandawyk, by the Cimbrians Mare Maruſa, and by the Latins, Mare Sarmaticum, and Mare Scythicum. The Swedes call it Is-Hafoet, and the Norwegians Leberſee. It borders the whole of the northern part of the empire, from the confines of Lapland to the Tſchukotſkoy-Noſs; that is, from 50 to 205 degrees of longitude, and conſequently laves the ſhores of the governments of Archangel, Tobolſk, and Irkutſk. Several bays of very conſiderable expanſe are formed by this vaſt ocean. The greateſt is the bay in the vicinity of Archangel, which commonly goes under the name of the WHITE-SEA, extending from north to ſouth within the land, from 69 to 63 degrees of north latitude, and contains a multitude of petty iſlands. — Next follows the Tcheſkaia guba, the karian bay, called alſo the karian ſea, Karſkoe morè; then the Obſkoe bay, which is un-

commonly ſpacious; the Taymurſkaia guba, or bay; the Khatangſkaia guba; two bays at the mouth of the Lena; and, laſtly, the Tſhaunſkaia guba, at 185 degrees longitude. — Of the numerous iſlands in this ocean the moſt conſiderable are; Novaya Zemlia and Kalgueva; but both of them are uninhabited, and only frequented by fiſhermen and hunters. Novaya Zemlia is indeed well ſupplied with waters, but is rocky, unfruitful, and deſtitute of wood; ſcarcely are a few ſtunted buſhes and polar plants to be met with there. But, on the other hand, this iſland abounds in rein-deer, white bears, white and blue foxes, and the ſhores ſwarm with morſes, walruſſes, &c. Its magnitude is eſtimated at nine hundred and fifty verſts in length, five hundred and twenty in breadth, and three thouſand and ninety in circumference, without following the ſinuoſities; and 425,509 german miles of ſuperficies, according to Mr. Storch. On the northern ſide it is entirely encompaſſed with ice-mountains. Among the lakes there is one of ſalt water. From the middle of October till February the ſun is not viſible at all; but they have numerous and ſtrong north-lights. In ſummer there are no thunder-ſtorms. The ſnow falls in many places to the depth of four arſhines. For two months, namely June and July, the ſun never ſets. Between this iſland and the main land is the famous paſſage known by the name of Vaygat's ſtraits. — Though this ſea contains ſo many bays, not leſs numerous

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are the capes or points of land that ſtrike out into it; theſe ſpits of land are called in ruſs Muiſs or Noſs; for ex. Muiſs-Matſol, Severo-Sapadnoi-Muiſs, Severo-Voſtotſchnoi-Muiſs, (or Taymurſkoi,) Muiſs-Svetoi-Preobrajenia, Svetoi-Muiſs, Shalatſkoi-Muiſs, and Tſchukotſkoy-Noſs. — In all this great ſea there are only three harbours whence at this time any navigation is purſued, namely, Kola, Archangel, and Meſen, whereof that of Archangel is the moſt famous. But that navigation, in compariſon of the prodigious expanſe of this ſea, is very trifling; however it is partly owing to the ſhort portion of the year allowed by the ice for this purpoſe; and in ſome regions there is ſcarcely time for undertaking it at all. As for the northern paſſage to China, which, as every one knows, has been ſo often attempted, nothing has hitherto been diſcovered favourable to any hopes from future enterpriſes. — The ſhores in many places, eſpecially thoſe of the White-ſea, are beſet with rocks; in other parts low, with ſhoals that, in a manner, forbid acceſs, and the country adjacent is very marſhy. — The water in this ſea is proportionably but little ſalt, though near Archangel it is ſo briny, that ſome quantities of common ſalt are prepared from it. The ebb and flow are moderate, and in the parts lying moſt to the north ſcarcely perceptible. — The fiſhery is very conſiderable, particularly of ſtock-fiſh, herrings, whales, morſes *, porpoiſes, ſea-dogs, &c.

* Trichecus roſmarus.

II. *The Eaſtern or the Pacific ocean.*

This ocean waſhes the ſhores of the government of Irkutſk, from Tſchukotſkoy-Noſs, or Cook's ſtraits, to the frontiers of China, in other words, from the mouth of the river Aimakan, that is, from about 65 to 45 deg. n. lat. This ocean is divided into two great parts. That lying eaſtwards from Kamtſhatka, between Siberia and America, is eminently ſtyled the Eaſtern, or the Pacific ocean: that on the weſt ſide from Kamtſhatka, between Siberia, the Chineſe Mongolèy, and the Kurilly iſlands, is called the ſea of Okhotſk. Thus, from the different places it touches, it bears different denominations: for inſtance, from the place where the river Anadyr falls into it, it is called the ſea of Anadyr; about Kamtſhatka, it is called the ſea of Kamtſhatka; and the bay between the diſtricts of Okhotſk and Kamtſhatka is called the ſea of Okhotſk, the upper part of which is termed Penjinſkoye morè, that is, the Penjinſkian ſea, as it approaches the mouth of the river Penjina.

In this ocean are a multitude of iſlands, and the peninſula of Kamtſhatka; which, as in their proper place, I ſhall here enumerate.

1. The peninſula of KAMTSHATKA. It was firſt diſcovered by the Ruſſians in 1696, but not made totally tributary till 1711. Kamtſhatka lies between the 51ſt and 62d deg. of n. lat. and between the 173d and the 182d deg. of longitude. Its boundary

ary towards the eaſt and ſouth is formed by the Eaſtern ocean; towards the weſt by the ſea of Okhotſk, and towards the north by the country of the Koriaki. — The country is full of mountains, among which are ſome volcanoes, whereof one is not far from Niſhnei Kamtſhatſkoi oſtrog, and another at a ſmall diſtance from Verchnei Kamtſhatſkoi oſtrog. The former is the biggeſt. In the year 1762, it firſt announced its approaching eruption, by a ſubterraneous noiſe, and ſoon after began to ſpout with flames on different ſides. To this burſt of fire immediately ſucceeded a large ſtream of melted ſnow, flowing down to the neighbouring valley with ſuch rapidity that it carried away two Kamtſhadales who were out in queſt of game. The aſhes and other ſubſtances thrown up were ſcattered round about to the diſtance of three hundred verſts. In the year 1767 another eruption happened, but by no means ſo violent. On that evening ſtreaks of fire were remarked to iſſue from the mountain. The irruption that happened immediately after cauſed conſiderable damage to the inhabitants. Since that time no flames have been obſerved to proceed from it; but both the mountains ſmoke continually. — Near the village Milkova a merchant of Irkutſk in 1760 diſcovered iron-ore, and erected ſmelting-houſes on the ſpot. Silver-ore, though not very rich, is alſo ſaid to have been found in Kamtſhatka. Moreover, the country, in ſome places, bears birch-trees, poplars, alders, willows, ſhrubs, and wild fruits of various kinds;

kinds; white cabbage, turnips, ſmall radiſhes, red and yellow turnips, cucumbers, &c. In the arts of agriculture the people have made no great progreſs; not that they have been wanting in attempts on their part, for even previous to the year 1765 ſeveral improvements were viſible in their practice. The corn, from its early maturity, is almoſt always damaged. Perceiving that the inhabitants were not averſe to the labours of huſbandry, the late commandant of Kamtſhatka, major von Behm, exerted himſelf greatly in bringing agriculture and grazing into repute, by encouragements of various kinds, and he had the ſatisfaction to ſee that his generous pains were not beſtowed in vain. His worthy ſucceſſor too, Mr. aſſeſſor Reinikin, continued theſe laudable endeavours, with ſuch good effects, that in 1782, from 68 pood and a half of winter-rye, 3416 ſheaves, and from 594 pood of barley, 24,840 ſheaves, were reaped. Oats, wheat, and buck-wheat, are much ſpoiled in general by the early froſts; but hemp ſucceeds very well. With agriculture, the breed of european domeſtic animals has likewiſe been introduced; and even with potatoes a very ſucceſsful beginning has been made.

2. BEHRING'S ISLAND. This iſland, which was diſcovered in 1740, lies in n. lat. from 55 to 56. It is a hundred and ſixty-five verſts in length and of various breadths; the greateſt breadth however is twenty-three verſts. This iſland conſiſts of a range of bald cliffs and hills in continuity with each other, which, being only divided by a great number of vallies,

vallies, lying north and ſouth, ſeem to riſe from the ſea like one ſingle rock. The higheſt of theſe mountains, however, are, perpendicularly, not above a thouſand fathoms in height, are covered with a yellow clay, and are very much riven by ſtorms and weather. The vallies are extremely narrow. All the mountains conſiſt of granite, except the rows that ſtand neareſt the ſea, which commonly are of ſandſtone, and, not unfrequently, form ſtony walls exceedingly ſteep. In theſe mountains there are likewiſe many caverns *. In the year 1741, three pretty ſmart ſhocks of earthquakes were perceived. The ſea hereabouts is not covered with ice. The cold is in general moderate; notwithſtanding which there are mountains whereon the ſnow never diſſolves. Neither thunder nor the aurora borealis have ever been obſerved here. The iſland has ſprings of excellent water, and beautiful cataracts. Of animals there are only ice-foxes, ſeals, ſea-bears, ſea-lions, ſea-cows, &c. No wood at all grows here; but ſeveral kinds of plants are ſeen. The iſland is uninhabited.

3. The COPPER ISLAND. This iſland, which was firſt viſited in 1755, by Yakovlief, a maſter-ſmelter, lies eaſt-ſouth-eaſt from the mouth of the river Kamtſhatka, in 55 deg. n. lat. and extends from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, very narrow and long, to fifty-five verſts in length. On the northern ſide its ſhores are for the moſt part bold and rocky,

* Hence it ſhould appear that there may be chalk mountains.

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interchangeably with conſiderable bays; but on the ſouth ſide they are more gentle, and in part ſandy. Only towards the ſouth-eaſt cape the coaſt is fronted by huge over-hanging rocks, and ſhoals which at ebb-tide form a level with the ſhore. The whole iſland is perfectly deſtitute of wood, and very mountainous. The mountains are very lofty, and conſiſt of a brittle ſtony ſtratum, which frequently tumbles down in very large maſſes. In the north-weſtern promontory native copper is found, (from which circumſtance the iſland receives its name,) where, in a ſteep declivity of the mountain, two openings riſe near the ſurface, ſcarce twenty fathoms aſunder, and about as far from the point or promontory, which lead to a ſchiſtous gangart, mixed with quartz and friable ſpar, bearing a calcareous earth transfuſed with verdigris, from which native copper and copper-glaſs are got. Cloſe to this, on the ſtrand, left by the water at ebb, little bits of copper about the ſize of a bean, thrown up by the ſea, are gathered. On the ſouth ſide of the point of the mountain-reef, at the diſtance of ſome fathoms from the point, on a flat ſhore, were found three cliffs at various diſtances, partly below the high-water mark, whence more than half a hundred weight of native copper, in all kinds of bits, exfoliations, and maſſes, were obtained; and ſtill a fourth place preſented itſelf on that ſide, ſeveral fathoms from the point of land, right in the ſea, where, in a ſpace forty-ſix feet long and ſix feet broad,

ſeveral

ſeveral little cliffs with native copper, and copper-glaſs expoſed themſelves to light. The largeſt piece of this native copper is to be ſeen in the cabinet of natural hiſtory in the imperial academy of ſciences at St. Peterſburg, weighing upwards of ten pounds.

4 The KURILSKOY iſlands. Under this name are compriſed all thoſe great and little iſlands which lie concatenated in the eaſtern ocean, from the foreland of the peninſula of Kamtſhatka, or the kurilloy Lopatka, as it is called, between ſouth and weſt, to the japan iſland Matmai; ſome whereof are inhabited and wooded, others quite bare and rocky, and a few that are volcanic. The ſea-room occupied by them, taking it from the kurilſkaia Lopatka to the iſle Matmai, may be eſtimated at thirteen hundred verſts. Of the two Kurilly iſlands that lie neareſt the Lopatka, the firſt accounts were brought to Ruſſia in the year 1713. The others have been ſucceſſively known from that period to 1779, by means of ruſſian mariners, who, at the time, put them under contribution to the crown. At preſent, we reckon them to be in all one-and-twenty in number; namely, 1. SHOOMTSHU, the neareſt to Kamtſhatka. The channel between the Lopatka and this iſland is fifteen verſts over. — The length of the iſland, from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, is fifty; and the breadth thirty verſts. The land is low, with moderate ridges of hills. The eaſtern coaſts, about the middle of the iſland, form ſteep ſhores and rocky ſhelves, and are for ſome way into the ſea

ſtudded

ſtudded with rocks. Here is ore; and it is ſaid that a vein of ſilver has been formerly worked. In the centre of the iſland is a lake, five verſts in circuit, and flows by a ſtreamlet into the ſea. In this are caught fine ſalmon, and ſeveral other kinds of fiſh. There are no ſtandard trees upon the iſland, only buſhes of alder, willow, and an eſpalier kind of pine or ſiberian cedar, on which grow little cedar-nuts. The inhabitants are not genuine Kurils, but of kamtſhadale deſcent; of theſe forty-four perſons pay tribute.—2. POROMUSHIR; between which and the former iſland the ſtraight is but two verſts broad. It lies from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and is twice as large as Shoomtſhu, very hilly, richly furniſhed with lakes and minerals, but deſtitute of wood. Here is no ſcarcity of red foxes, wolves, and all kinds of mice.—3. SHIRINKI. The diſtance from Poromuſhir to this third iſland may be about twenty-ſix verſts. On it riſes a round mountain-top, and about it on the coaſt walls of rock and looſe brittle ſtone, but no ſandy bay, nor any ſafe inlet for ſhipping. The iſland is nearly as broad as it is long, and may be about forty verſts in circumference. It is only inhabited by ſea-lions and other marine animals, with ſome red foxes and ſea fowl that have been carried thither with the ice. Except a few ſticks of the mountain-pine and ſome alder buſhes, there is no wood on the iſland; and as to water, there is neither a ſtream nor a ſpring. The rocks are very much diſpoſed to break, and fall in fragments.—

4. MAKAN

4. MAKAN KUR ASSEY, lies at the diſtance of ſixty verſts from the foregoing; in length it is twenty verſts, and in breadth ten. It is ſcattered with rocks, eſpecially about the ſhores, and many meadow grounds, and moiſt plains. It has no ſtanding wood, but ſuch ſhrubs as in the laſt-mentioned iſland. Red foxes here are few; and ſea-beavers and ſeals lie about the ſhores of this uninhabited iſland, which has neither lake nor ſtream, but plenty of ſprings on all ſides. — 5. ANAKUTAN; the diſtance hither from the fourth iſland is thirty-five verſts. It is about a hundred verſts long and fifteen broad. Three ſummits of mountains here diſtinguiſh themſelves by their elevation, two of which have exhauſted craters. The wood is here likewiſe ſcrubbed and ſcanty. Red foxes are pretty numerous; but few ſea-beavers, &c. on the coaſt. Several ſtreams of hard water flow from it into the ſea. — 6. AR-AMAKUTAN; the diſtance of this iſland is no more than ſix verſts from the laſt-mentioned. It is in length twenty, and in breadth ten verſts. In the centre of the iſland ſtands a rocky mountain, which was formerly a volcano; and towards the ſtraight between it and the fifth iſland, on the eaſtern ſhore, ſtands another, which is alſo reported to have been once a burning mountain, the foot and ſummit whereof are covered with white ſand. This iſland is alſo uninhabited, and is only viſited by the Kurils on account of the chace, as it abounds with foxes; and on the ſhores are ſea-lions

and ſea-otters. In the ſteep declivity of the coaſt is found waſſerbley, or molybdæna, in a white ſtratum. — 7. SYASKUTAN; from the ſixth iſland hither it may be fifty verſts; the current in the ſtraight between them is very rapid. This iſland is alſo uninhabited. It is eighty verſts long and five broad. Upon it are two high rocky mountains. One of them ſtands in the northern half, on the north-eaſt ſhore, extends ridgewiſe, and has formerly burnt; round about are rocky hills and a coaſt of cliffs. The other huge rock is on the promontory near the north-weſt ſide, and, from the pinnacle to the ſea ſhore, on both ſides, conſiſts of nothing but rock and crumbling ſtone. — 8. IKARMA; this is about twelve verſts from the ſeventh iſland, and is eight verſts long. Upon it is a volcano, which at times emits flames. The ſhore is in general ſtony, here and there preſenting a ſulphureous ſpring. Lakes and ſtreams here are none; and, in regard to wood and animals, the deſcription of the foregoing iſland may ſerve as well for this. — 9. TSHIRINKUTAN; to this from the eighth iſland is computed at thirty verſts. The iſle is round, and has fifteen verſts in diameter. A mountain near upon the ſtrand is continually iſſuing ſmoke, and very frequently lets large ſtones roll down one of its ſides, whereby a valley has been excavated from top to bottom. The coaſt round about is mountainous and rocky. This iſland has great numbers of wild fowl, but in other reſpects is like the former. — 10. Mus-

10. MUSSYR; from the ninth, this round and ſtony iſland lies at the diſtance of thirty-five verſts, the diameter whereof cannot be more than three verſts. It is deſtitute of water, but is notwithſtanding frequented by great quantities of birds. Here are alſo ſea-lions in abundance. — 11. RACH KOKE; the diſtance from the tenth iſland to this is ſtated to be a hundred and twenty verſts. The length and breadth of it may each amount to about twenty verſts, and it looks like a ſolitary mountain puſhing upwards from the ſea. Formerly it had verdure upon it, with ſhelves of rock, where the ſea-fowl made their neſts in great numbers. But theſe rocky ſhelves have been demoliſhed by the eruption of ſubterraneous fires, which ſplit the ſummit of the mountain, throwing up vaſt quantities of ſtones and aſhes, and ſince that time the iſland has always continued burning. At this eruption thoſe places on the ſhores where formerly they had thirteen fathom water, were filled up with rubbiſh and aſhes into ſhoals and banks. — 12. MUTOVA; between this and the eleventh iſland the diſtance amounts to forty-five verſts. It may be about thirty verſts long, and nearly the ſame number in breadth. On the ſouth ſide ſtands a very lofty mountain, from whoſe ſummit a thick black ſmoke is conſtantly riſing, and which at times caſts up red-hot ſtones, ſpreading danger and deſolation around it. To the north, vallies rich in herbs and habitable plains extend, where various kinds of edible roots

and wild fruits grow as in the forementioned iſlands. Foxes are the only land-animals here. Perſons ſubject to the tribute are here numbered at ſixty-three. — 13. RASSAGU; this iſland lies forty verſts diſtant from the twelfth, and is about thirty verſts meaſured either way. It has lofty mountains and ſteep rocky ſhores, with very few ſandy bays. On the mountains, here and there, is a good foreſt of birch, alders, and the nut-bearing pine; the vales and flats abound in herbs. On the land is no other animal than the fox, but the cliffs of the rocks afford neſting-places for all kinds of ſea-birds, and the beavers and ſeals lie ſcattered on ſeveral parts of the ſtrand. Here are no ſtreams that yield fiſh. The Kurils on this iſland are not numerous, and part of them are baptiſed. — 14. USSASSYR, lies ſeventeen verſts from it, and may be in length and breadth about twenty-five verſts each. It is properly two iſlands lying cloſe together, conſiſting of conſiderable rocks and cliffs. Opening to the ſouth is a round bay, in the ſhape of a kettle encompaſſed with hills, where the ſtrand is ſandy; and along it, as well as on the ſea-ſhore, runs a ſource of almoſt hot-water, and not far from it another. Here too are ſome ſpouts, running ſtrong, and throwing the water to a conſiderable height in the air. In many places we perceive chaps and chaſms in the earth of a hundred fathom in length, and ſometimes more. Near the great ſpout the ſhore is ſteep and high, producing large lumps of ſulphur and ſalmiak, which partly fall

fall down, and partly are collected there. Otherwiſe the iſland is in quality like the former.—15. KETOI, lies thirty-ſix verſts from the fourteenth iſland, and is thirty verſts in length, with about ten in breadth. On this iſland are ſeen high mountains, with their white rocky walls and ſummits; at the foot of theſe and in the vallies are foreſts of birch, alders, the ſorbus ſylveſtris aucuparia, the pinus cembra, the pinus montana, and another ſpecies which is probably a taxus. The iſland nouriſhes, white, black-bellied, and red foxes. The ſea animals do not lie in great plenty. The iſland is uninhabited.—16. SEMUSSYR; here we may reckon thirty verſts from the fifteenth iſland. The length of this is a hundred and thirty verſts, and the breadth not more than ten. This iſland has four mountains, one of which ſhews evident traces of its having formerly burnt; elſe it is of the ſame properties with the laſt-mentioned. The paſſage hence to the ſeventeenth iſland is two hundred verſts.—17. TSHIRPO OI, with two adjacent iſlands; both in length and breadth it may be eſtimated at fifteen verſts. This iſland has had a volcano, that has vomited ſtones over the whole face of it. In lieu of all foreſt-woods, nothing is here to be ſeen, except buſhes of the above-mentioned ſorbus ſylveſtris, and no ſtreams, but one little ſaline lake. In one ſpot is a ſalt-ſpring of that kind called acidulæ, the water whereof loſes its acidity by boiling. On an adjacent iſland is alſo a volcano.—18. URUP,

diſtant from the foregoing twenty-five verſts. This iſland is of a more reſpectable ſize than moſt of the others, being two hundred verſts long, and twenty broad. It has high mountains with bald heads, very ſteep, and about them deep glens. On the north coaſt lie four ſmall iſles almoſt contiguous. In the vales, and beſide the ſtreams, ſometimes is ſeen a plain; and as well in the vallies as on the mountains, as likewiſe over the whole iſland on the north and eaſt ſides, grow good high foreſts of birches, alders, the ſorbus ſylveſtris, and ſturdy willows. On the ſhores and in the valley-plains the herbs ſhoot uncommonly high. Streams of conſiderable ſize fall from the mountains into the ſea, and yield a variety of fiſh. In the northern part, about the middle of the iſland, is an inland ſea, which ſends its waters, by a broad ſtream, into the ocean. The ſtream abounds in fiſh. There are great quantities of rats on this iſland, and red and white foxes in plenty. Where the mountains are broken into ruins, appear various clefts producing ore, ſuch as copper-pyrites mixed with quartz, ſulphur-pyrites as hard as ſteel, with quartz, and a poor copper-pyrites in a calcareous gangue. This iſland is only frequented for taking the foxes. — 19. ETORPU; it lies thirty verſts from the foregoing, and is either way about three hundred verſts. Lofty mountains with numerous ſummits are diffuſed over the whole iſland; one of them, at the northern extremity, emits a continual ſmoke from its top, and, at inter-

vals,

vals, flames. The ſummits of the mountains are bald, with ſteep cliffs and heaps of rubbiſh. Here are ſtrong foreſts conſiſting of the ſame trees with the laſt-mentioned iſland. In the ſouthern half, near about the centre of the iſland, grow larch-trees, in the proximity of the ſea, but ſlender, though farther inland, in the plains of the vallies, good timber trees, fit for the purpoſes of building. Here are likewiſe black bears, and in the foreſts ſables and foxes are met with. Of rats there is no ſcarcity; fiſh-otters haunt the ſtreams; the brooks abound in fiſh. During the ſtorms that happen here, whales and large dolphins are thrown aſhore by the ſea. The ſea-otter is not ſeen here, but ſea-lions, though not of any great dimenſions. The inhabitants are hairy Kurils, who dwell together in villages. They are numbered to the capitation tax at ninety-two perſons. — 20. KUNASSYR; from the former iſland to this are about forty verſts. It is a hundred and fifty verſts long and fifty broad, and is entirely ſurrounded by mountains with lofty ſummits; but on the middle of the iſlands are low plains. Firs, larches, birch, &c. grow here. At the ſouthern extremity, a flat ſandy beach extends from the mountains, where the ſea brings up a ſpecies of pearl-bearing muſſel in vaſt abundance; ſome of the bigneſs of a deſſert plate. The iſland has lakes and broad ſtreams that abound in fiſh. It is likewiſe inhabited by Kurils, who are rated at forty-one perſons. — 21. TSHIKOTA; diſtant from the former

iſland ſeventy verſts. It is in length a hundred and twenty, and in breadth forty verſts. It has lofty mountains, with ſimilar foreſts to thoſe of the twentieth, with lakes and ſtreams of wholeſome water. The inhabitants are alſo Kurils. At the ſouthern extremity lie ten petty iſles. — The two-and-twentieth is the iſland MATMAI, the largeſt of all, and the neareſt to Japan. Its ſize and extent are not at preſent known. The channel between this iſland and Japan is ſaid to be no more than ſixty verſts over, and full of rocks. The current here is extremely rapid. On the ſouthern promontory ſtands the Japaneſe town Matmai, where the ſupreme commander has his reſidence. The hairy Kurils are in poſſeſſion of the inland parts of the iſland. The Japaneſe and Chineſe reſort hither in trading veſſels for the purpoſes of commerce, which conſiſts of taking in barter of the Kurils, ſea-otters, ſeals, and various ſorts of furs, alſo fat, oil, and blubber of whales and other marine animals, eagles' feathers for fledging their darts and arrows, and other articles, which they get very cheap in exchange for ſilk and cotton pieces for garments, japanned veſſels, rice, brandy, tobacco, ſabres, knives, pots, and kettles, hatchets, and the like. In the regions of the bay Atkis, the land extends northward in a great headland, where lofty mountains riſe in all parts, tending eaſtward in ridges. Within land are ſpacious vales between the mountains, and ample rivers roll in currents to the ſea. The coaſt abounds

in

in bays and bites, which might be made to ſerve as harbours. The foreſts conſiſt of oaks, beech, elm, red-wood of an unknown ſpecies, birch, willows, and other trees never ſeen to grow in Ruſſia. On the mountains are a large kind of nut in great abundance. The fields produce a multitude of unknown herbs and vegetables; yet among them are perceived ſtrawberries, ſerviceberries, cranberries, bilberries, and a large kind of hips and haws. Of animals, the foreſts afford haunts to black bears, elks, roebucks, deer (which the Kurils hunt with clubs), ſables, foxes, hares, and river-otters. The bays and inland lakes ſwarm with all kinds of ducks and other water-fowl; nor is the country deficient in frogs and ſnakes.—Of theſe two-and-twenty kurilli iſlands, only the former twenty-one are ſubject to Ruſſia; but all of theſe do not pay tribute.

5. The ALEUTSKY iſlands. Under this general appellation are comprehended that chain of iſlands which extends from Kamtſhatka, beyond the Copper-iſland, north-eaſtward to the continent of America, whereof the moſt conſiderable amount to forty in number. We may clearly admit this chain of iſlands to be a branch of the kamtſhadale mountains continued in the ſea. A part of it was firſt ſeen ſoon after the diſcovery of Behring's iſland, the reſt at ſeveral periods ſince. South eaſtward of the Copper-iſland within a hundred and fifty or two hundred verſts between the 54th and 55th deg. of n. lat. lie three ſmall iſlands known by the names of

of Attak, Shemya, and Semitſhi, and, with a few others, were firſt denominated by the Ruſſians Aleutſkie oſtrova, becauſe a bald rock, in the language of theſe parts, is called aleut. In the ſequel this name was extended to the whole chain; though a part of it, namely as far as the iſland Yamblak, are named the Andreanofſkoi, and the reſt, lying farther towards America, the Fox iſlands.—Of the above-mentioned three little iſlands, Attak is the biggeſt, ſeems to have a larger extent of ſurface than Behring's iſland, and has an oblong form, lying more weſt and eaſt. No volcanic traces have been diſcovered, and here are no land animals but ice-foxes and rock-foxes, more frequently blue than white. The ſea-otters come hither but ſingly; whereas ſea-lions, ſea-bears, manatis, and ſome other ſea-animals frequent theſe ſhores in herds.—That row of iſlands comprehended under the name of Andreanofſkiye oſtrova, runs ſouth-eaſtward from the extremeſt of thoſe properly called the Aleutan iſlands, continuing the chain as far as the Fox iſlands, between eaſt by north and eaſt-north-eaſt, within the 52d and 54th degree of n. lat. The ſouthern and neareſt are inconſiderable iſlands, and but little known. More remarkable are: Takavangha, which has in its centre, near the northern coaſt, a burning mountain; Kanaghi, likewiſe with a high ſmoking mountain; Ayag, which has a number of good bays and anchoring places; and Tſhetchina, on which a high white mountain over-tops the

the reſt, which apparently is an extinct volcano, as there are ſtill hot ſprings on this iſland.—The late Mr. Muller arranged the iſlands between Kamtſhatka and America, in the following manner: Under the general name Saſignes are ſix iſlands, viz. Behring's and Copper iſlands, and the neareſt Aleutans, whereof Otma, Samia, and Anatto, are moſt eminent. The ſecond diviſion is called Chao, and comprehends eight iſlands; Immæk, Kiſka, Tſhetghina, Ava, Chavia, Tſhagulak, Ulagabma, and Amtſhigda, or the more diſtant Aleutans. The third claſs bears the name of Negho, and contains what are called the Andreanofſkiye iſlands, that is the ſixteen following: Amatkineg, Ulek, Unalga, Navotſha, Uliga, Anægin, Chagulak, Illaſhe, Takavanga, Kanaga, (which two are remarkable for burning mountains,) Lek, Shetſhuna, Tagaluhn, behind which follow ſome uninhabited little rocks and iſlands, one of which, on account of its black cliffs, is called by the Ruſſians, Goreloi *, and, laſtly, Atſhak and Amlak. The fourth claſs are the Fox iſlands, under the name Kavalang, the number whereof is ſaid to be ſixteen, as: Amukta, Tſhigama, Tſhegula, Uniſka, Ulaga, Tanagulæna, Kagamin, Kigalga, Sholmaga, Unmak, Agun-Alæſka †, Unimga, or Unimak, towards which a point of land from the continent of America, with a few circumjacent

* The burnt. † Or, Unalaſhka.

iſlands,

iſlands, is ſaid to project; and then, ſtill beyond this point, are Uligan, Antun-Duſſume, Semedit, and Senegak, whence perhaps Kadiak was formed. The Andreanofſkiye and Fox iſlands are in general juſt as mountainous as the Aleutan and Behring's iſland. Their coaſts are rocky and ſurrounded by breakers. The land riſes immediately from the coaſts, to ſteep, bald, rock-mountains, gradually aſcending higher behind each other, and take the appearance of chains of mountains, with a direction lengthwiſe of the iſland, and commonly in the midway of the breadth the higheſt ridges are formed. Springs take their riſe at the foot of the mountain, and flow either in broad and rapid ſtreams, into the neighbouring ſea; or, collecting themſelves in the rocky vales and glens, beneath, form ample lakes, which let off their ſuperfluous waters by natural canals, into the adjacent bays. Several of theſe iſlands, where at preſent no ſmoking volcano is any longer diſcernible, as Ayak and Tſhetchina, ſeem antiently to have had them, as their traces are ſtill to be ſeen in the ſulphureous boiling ſources that are met with at various intervals. On Tatavanga and Kanaga, among the Andreanofſkiye iſlands, and again on Umnak, on the great iſland Unalaſhka, and on Unimga, among the Fox iſlands, are ſtill active volcanoes, which continually emit ſmoke, and from ſome of them frequently iſſue flames. Only the ſmoking-mountain of Unalaſhka has never been ſeen to vomit fire. Any traces of metals

metals have never yet been deſcried on theſe volcanic iſlands. But carneoles and ſardonyxes are brought from them. The ſoil of theſe iſlands is reported to be ſimilar to that of Kamtſhatka; the ſame kinds of edible wild berries and roots have been found there, excepting ſome few vegetables which ſeem to be of foreign produce. Beſides creeping twigs of willow, larches, alders, and birch, which ſeem as little as on the ſnow-mountains, no wood has been perceived on theſe iſlands, Kadiak excepted. It is ſaid, however, that on Unalaſhka, in ſome deep vales, a ſmall matter of wood ſhoots up. But the ſea wafts all ſorts of floating-timber to their ſhores. Of land-animals, on the Fox iſlands (though not on the Andreanofſkiye) they have an extraordinary number of foxes. Among which there are about as many black and grey, as red and brown. Here are alſo bears, wolves, river-otters, river-beavers, martins, and ermines, which are however in inferior quantity, and ſeem to be come over from America. The ſea-otter is frequently caught here. Their ſeas abound in all ſorts of ſeals, dolphins, and whales; ſea-lions and porpoiſes are rare, and ſea-cows not at all to be ſeen. The water-fowl, and fiſh are the ſame as at Kamtſhatka. The winter is tolerably mild, but the ſummer equally ſhort and unpleaſant. Theſe iſlands are pretty well peopled; the inhabitants moſtly pay tribute to Ruſſia, and drive a bartering trade with the ruſſian mariners who go thither on account of the very profitable

chace of ſea-otters and foxes. They are, however, not always to be truſted, as no ſmall number of Ruſſians have experienced to their coſt, having been robbed and murdered by theſe ſavages. — Of the inhabitants of Unalaſhka, their clothing, food, &c. an account is given in the voyages of Capt. Cook.

The moſt noted harbours in theſe ſeas are that of Peter and Paul, (or Avatſha,) on Kamtſhatka, and the port of Okhotſk. In the former engliſh veſſels have at various times landed; and from both ſeveral ruſſian ſhips, for the purpoſes of the chace and the taking of ſea-animals, to the iſlands in the ocean. Ebbs and floods, and particularly the currents, are very ſtrong. The ſea-water is uncommonly ſalt. But this prodigious ocean is in general by far too little known at preſent for a particular deſcription of it.

Kamtſhatka (ſays Mr. Kirwan, in his ingenious eſtimate of the temperature of different latitudes) is ſo diſtant from the Atlantic, that its temperature is no way influenced by it, but rather by that of the north Pacific to which it adjoins. On the eaſtern coaſt, latitude 55, Captain Cook found ſnow ſix or eight feet deep in May, and it continued till June; in May the thermometer was moſtly at 32°, and on the 15th of June not higher than 58°; in Auguſt its greateſt height was 65°, and its loweſt 40°; in October the hills began to be covered with ſnow; in November, December, and January, there are violent

violent ſtorms, accompanied with ſnow, the wind at E. and S. E. In January the cold is ſometimes 28°, but generally 18°.

The northern parts of this peninſula enjoy the moſt moderate weather, being chiefly influenced by the north ſea, whoſe temperature, I believe even in winter, is milder than that of the ſea below the ſtreights that ſeparate Aſia from America.

Speaking of the temperature of the north Pacific ocean, the ſame judicious and accurate author obſerves, that this part of it is contracted in latitude 66° to the narrow ſpace of forty miles; and in latitude 52° it occupies the ſpace of only 30° in breadth, from eaſt to weſt, that is, about thirteen hundred miles; whereas the Atlantic in latitude 52° is about ſeventeen hundred miles in breadth, and is nowhere contracted to a leſs ſpace than ſeven hundred miles. Add to this, that the coaſts of Aſia on the one ſide, and thoſe of America on the other, are bordered with high mountains covered with ſnow for a great part of the year; and numerous high iſlands lie ſcattered between both continents. From theſe circumſtances we have ſufficient reaſon to conclude a priori, that this ſea ſhould be much colder than that portion of the Atlantic contained between the ſame parallels; for, during the winter, the mountains that line the coaſts, are cooled to a much greater degree, than the flat coaſts of the Atlantic; and the ſea, where narrow, is entirely frozen; in ſummer, heaps of ice, being

being long ſheltered from the ſun by the iſlands, are carried down into lower latitudes, and the ſnow remains long unmelted on the mountains; ſo that he is inclined to think, that the annual temperature of it is at leaſt 4 degrees below that of the ſtandard in each correſponding latitude. But the obſervations either on theſe ſeas, or the neighbouring coaſts, are not as yet ſufficiently numerous, to determine, with any preciſion, the mean temperature of any of theſe parts.

III. *The Euxine or Black-ſea.*

This laves the ſhores of Taurida and a part of the governments of Caucaſus and Ekatarinoſlaf. It is divided into the Euxine proper, the Pontus Euxinus, computed to be a thouſand verſts in length, and five hundred in breadth; and the ſea of Azof, the Palus Meotides of the antients, which (not including the bay of Taganrok) is ſtated to be two hundred verſts long and one hundred and ſixty verſts broad. Both theſe are now entirely within the confines of the ruſſian empire. The moſt important of the bays they form, are: 1. The Liman at the mouth of the Dniepr. 2. The bay near Perekop; and 3. that cloſe to Yenicaly. Theſe ſeas have but few iſlands in the vicinity of the ruſſian coaſts; the moſt conſiderable of them is Taman. — The principal harbours here are: Kaffa *, Sebaſtopol, Koſlof,

* Now Theodoſia.

Balak-

Balaklava, and ſome others. At the weſtern extremity of theſe ſeas, within the province of Taurida, is a very large pool, called Sivaſh, or the Putrid ſea, which is about one hundred and forty verſts long and fourteen broad.

IV. *The Baltic or Eaſt-ſea.*

This ſea, anciently called Variatzkoie morè, or the ſea of the Varagians, lies weſtward of Ruſſia *. That part of it which waſhes the coaſts of the governments of St. Peterſburg, Reval and Vyborg is called the Gulf of Finland, which is above four hundred verſts long, and from a hundred to a hundred and twenty broad: the part extending between the government of Riga and the iſland Œſel, is called the Bay of Riga. The chief harbours in this ſea are: 1. Riga (or Dunamunde). 2. Reval. 3. Pernau. 4. Habſal. 5. Rogervyk, now called Baltic port. 6. Peterſburg (or Cronſtadt). 7. Vyborg. 8. Frederickſhamm, and 9. Arenſburg, on the iſle of Œſel. The principal iſlands in this ſea, belonging to Ruſſia, are: Dago, Œſel, Cronſtadt, Hochland, Tyterſaari, Lavanſaari, Peniſaari, and Seitſaari. There are great fiſheries in theſe parts, and numbers of ſeals are taken; but far more

* Ptolomy calls this ſea Venedicus ſinus; Tacitus, Mare Sueviçum; and Pliny ſpeaks of it under the name of Codanus ſinus. The Ruſſians call it Baltiſkoe morè; and the Swedes, Oſter-Sjon.

conſiderable is the navigation: as it may be computed that every year upwards of two thouſand ſhips of burden paſs to and from the ruſſian ports alone. Much ſkill and caution are requiſite for navigating this ſea, and eſpecially the gulf of Finland, both on account of the heavy gales of wind ſo frequent here, and the multitude of rocks and ſhelves with which theſe ſeas abound. The water is but moderately ſalt, and has a very perceptible current, ſo that in northernly winds it is almoſt freſh to the taſte. It is affirmed, on very good foundation, that the water of the Baltic is continually decreaſing *.

I ſhall conclude this head with a ſhort deſcription of the above-mentioned iſlands, and a ſomewhat more circumſtantial account of Cronſtadt, which, as it is properly the port of St. Peterſburg, and the centre of its foreign commerce, ſeems to demand particular notice.

DAGO or DAGEN, and ŒSEL are two conſiderable but rocky iſlands. On the latter are nevertheleſs many beautiful flowers. Conſiderable quantities of limeſtone and marble are brought away from it †.

ŒSEL, commonly called in eſthnic, Kurreſaar, i. e. Crane iſland, but by the inhabitants Sare ma, i. e. The iſland. A literary gentleman of the place

* According to repeated obſervations made in Sweden, the Baltic is found to ſubſide at the rate of forty-five inches every hundred years.

† See Hup. i. 315. iii. 407. Haigold, ii. 363.

ſuppoſes the former name may primarily have been uſed to expreſs the Kures iſland: for, as the Kures, eſpecially thoſe on the coaſt, by the teſtimony of hiſtory, frequently made common cauſe with the Œſelans, the Livonians on the main land might anſwer the interrogatories of the Germans on their arrival: Œſel is the iſland of the Kures, Kurè or Kuraſaar; whence afterwards Kurreſaar might probably ariſe. The Lettiſh called this iſland Sahmu ſemme; on which a ſagacious critic remarked, that this name likewiſe may have undergone a gradual change, and at firſt was Sahna ſemme, i. e. Side-land. — The length of the iſland from Palmerort to the point lying to the ſouth-eaſt of the light-houſe of Svarverort, is about eleven and a half ſwediſh miles, nearly a hundred and eighteen verſts. In breadth it varies greatly: its largeſt being nine miles and a half, or ninety-nine verſts; its ſmalleſt at the iſthmus to the north-eaſt of the creek of Kylla, is about a quarter of a german mile, or two verſts and a half.

The temperature of the air is moderate and ſalubrious; the ſoil being in moſt parts ſand, loam, and clay, is therefore poor; but after good manuring with cow-dung or ſea-weed, and proper culture, it produces good corn, particularly wheat, rye, and barley; in favourable ſeaſons likewiſe oats and peas; only the quite ſandy parts ſeldom yield good barley, eſpecially in dry ſummers, as it then all runs to ſtraw.

The ſtone-quarries here are fine and very productive. A ſtatuary from Peterſburg came hither in 1778, and dug out large blocks of limeſtone four or five yards long, of which he made the ſtatues for the new imperial armory at St. Peterſburg, and ſince that time great quantities of blocks and ſlabs for table-monuments, &c. have been ſent to that place. The academy has likewiſe obtained various kinds of beautiful and rare ſtones from Œſel. The marble lately diſcovered is veined of blue, red, and yellow, but is not found in large pieces; beſides, it appears to be not of ſufficient maturity. Black and grey flagſtone are found here; likewiſe red-beſprinkled grindſtone in large maſſes, which, there being no other demand for them, are broke to pieces by the boors.

The character of the Œſel peaſantry much reſembles that of their brethren the Eſthonians, only that the former are more cleanly and orderly, are in general not given to drinking, and ſuch as exceed a little in that particular, prefer beer to brandy. In muſic and dancing, thoſe of Œſel ſhew more taſte than the inhabitants of the adjacent continent: we occaſionally meet with boors who produce very tolerable airs from their favourite inſtrument the bagpipes; they have likewiſe two ſorts of dances; one called by them the ſuur or kœrge tants, i. e. the great or high dance, and another named piſſuke tants, the little dance. Their houſes are more commodious and more adapted to health than

than thoſe of the Eſthonians; they have windows and ſome begin to have chimnies. In a few of the rooms are deal-floors: ſeveral of the wealthier ſort no longer burn laths for light, but uſe tallow candles, and the opulent boors along the coaſt have iron lamps with ſea-dog oil: however theſe elegancies are very rare, the generality live in much humbler ſtyle.

For the Eſthonians and the Lettiſh an almanac is annually printed in their own language, and ſold at an eaſy price: but the boors of Œſel make themſelves their kalendar; for which purpoſe, as they cannot write, they have made choice of certain ſigns, which they mark in an artleſs manner on ſeven narrow flat ſticks tied together by a thong, or more properly on thirteen ſides. On each ſide is a month conſiſting of twenty-eight days. By this kalendar they know at once every week-day, every immoveable feſtival, and every day that is memorable among them by any ſuperſtitious rites; for each has its peculiar ſign. They begin to reckon every ſucceſſive year one day later than the laſt; and in the uſe of the kalendar they follow the practice of the Hebrews, and other oriental nations, who begin their books at what with us is the end, and read from right to left.

Mohn, called by the Eſthonians Muho ma, which literally ſignifies, the land of boils or ſores. The ſtrait, called the great ſound, which ſeparates it from the main land is about two ſwediſh miles over in its

broadeſt part, and near a mile where it is narroweſt; the tranſport being made in ſummer by large boats, called prames. The like paſs between Mohn and Œſel acroſs the little ſound, which ſomewhat reſembles a ſpacious haven. Various reaſons have been alleged for ſuppoſing that it gradually aroſe and ſeparated the two iſlands. Henry the Lettonian deſcribes the track to Œſel with great accuracy; he relates the difficulties of the voyage; but ſays not a word of the little ſound, in mentioning the diviſion of the province to which Mohn belongs. Mohn lies to the ſouth-weſt of Œſel, forming a pariſh of itſelf, with its own church and preacher. Ships in paſſing the great ſound take boors as pilots on board, to whom they pay five rubles. Near the middle of the iſland on an eminence ſtands the church. Many of the boors live comfortably; almoſt every one of them having his own little portion of foreſt, which they keep neat and clean on account of the ſcarcity of fuel, and which as well as their hay-fields are incloſed by a ſort of wall of ſtones laid one on another. As a ſhelter from the ſtorms to which theſe ſeas are ſubject, ſome have built their houſes in the midſt of theſe little thickets, carefully gathering up the dry twigs that fall off in the autumn to ſave firewood. By this prudent diligence their woods have a very elegant appearance; but on the coaſts nothing is to be ſeen but hay-fields and rocks. Not only acorns and bilberries, but alſo wild nuts and crab-apples grow here, of which laſt the boors make a tolerably

tolerably well-taſted cyder; in the farms they alſo uſe them for ſwine-maſt. By collecting the ſtones for incloſures, the inhabitants have cleared their fields of them and gained conſiderable ſpots of land. The circumference of the whole iſland amounts to ninety-five verſts. The paſſage over the great ſound in ſummer with oars is made in about four hours, but with a ſail and a fair wind, in leſs than two.

To Mohn belong two ſmall iſlands; one lying towards the north, and quite uninhabited, is merely a hay-field for the boors of Mohn; the other lies nearly between Œſel and Mohn, in the little ſound, and here live three boors. For ſome years paſt Œſel as well as Mohn have been viſited with the diſtemper of the horned cattle, but not raging with ſo much violence as on the terra firma. — Here is a large ſtagnant lake, from which a canal has been made to the ſea. The whole ſpace is full of ſhilf ſo as to look like a wood; but it is cut down and turned to profit. The proprietors of eſtates have erected two ſluices that the canal may be ſhut in, by which an uncommonly productive fiſhery has ariſen here of the fiſh that come up the canal in the ſpring after the freſh water.

Ruun, for ſo it is here pronounced; Runo, Runeholm, as it is uſually called, come from the Swediſh. In an extenſive ſenſe it belongs to the province of Œſel. This iſland lies in the middle of the gulf of Riga, at the diſtance of ninety-five verſts from the town of that name, and rather more than fifty-

one verſts from Œſel. It is diſtinguiſhable far off at ſea by a foreſt of birch trees, which occupies one of its ſides. It is entirely the property of the crown, and is inhabited ſolely by ſwediſh boors. Here is a a church and a preacher; who, if we may judge from the ſmallneſs of his congregation, muſt be of a contented diſpoſition, and exerciſed in patience; though his income is very decent, having the tithe of all the products of the iſland, and a parcel of land beſide. Veſſels rarely paſs between this and Riga; but the people take little concern about the tranſactions of the firm land. In behoof of the ſhips here is a light-houſe, for the ſupply of which the boors are obliged to buy the fuel on the continent, for which the crown allows them forty dollars. There is no farm on the iſland, except that of the paſtorate. The arendator collects the ſtated impoſts merely from the boors, which amount to no great matter. For ſettling the differences that ariſe among the boors, the paſtor, with a convocation of the elders, decides in the firſt inſtance; the diſcontented have an appeal from this deciſion to the arendator. It is affirmed, that, among the inhabitants are found ſome remains of the old Livonians: they ſpeak the runic language, which is entirely confined to them, and perhaps is the true livonian; alſo the eſthnic, the lettiſh, the ſwediſh, but moſt commonly the german and ruſs, each with facility from their frequent intercourſe with others. In the labours of the chace and the capture of the ſea-dog, they are indefa-

indefatigable, whereby they gain an opulent ſubſiſtence. They live in great harmony, and only intermarry among their own ſociety *.

Dago lies nearly in the 59th degree of north latitude, exactly oppoſite to Œſel, from which it is ſeparated by a ſmall ſtrait. It is diſtant from the main-land upwards of eighteen, and in ſome places above thirty miles. This iſland is at leaſt about eight ſwediſh miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, by near ſix and a quarter of breadth. It is of an oblong ſhape, having a promontory extending weſtward far into the ſea; a ſmaller one to the north-eaſt, another to the ſouth, and a fourth almoſt due eaſt. The others are leſs conſiderable. The two principal ſides, which are equal, are about ſix miles in length, but along the ſhore, on account of its ſinuoſities, at leaſt ſeven miles. The larger of the two ſmalleſt ſides, which is that to the north, meaſures about five and a half miles in a ſtrait line, and the fourth ſide about three and a half.

The paſſage from the main land to Dago is uſually either acroſs the iſland Vorms; or paſſing by the little iſle of Heſtholm ſouthward or northward. Many direct their courſe by the village Vachterbæ, where a foreſt of alders, ſeen at a great diſtance, ſerves for a land-mark; hence it is forbidden, under very heavy penalties, to cut down a tree of this

* Theſe accounts are communicated by paſtor Haken, at Yamma, who is very advantageouſly known to the people of theſe parts.

foreſt.

foreſt. In ſummer-time the paſſage is very ſafe acroſs the ſound in a little boat with three boors; though by reaſon of ſome unavoidable circuitous routes, the paſſage is reckoned at from thirty to thirty-five verſts, and even more. There is doubtleſs great danger from ſudden ſqualls of wind; but misfortunes are not often heard of, as the parts being well known to the inhabitants, they eaſily run into ſome bite of one of the petty iſles. It frequently happens that a paſſenger is long detained by contrary winds, and, not being accuſtomed to take much proviſions for ſo ſhort a voyage, does penance for this neglect by ſuffering extreme hunger.

The numerous ſhallows, ſand-banks, and ſmall iſlands, render the navigation about Dago ſomewhat perilous; and ſhips are often ſtranded here. On the weſtern promontory, whoſe extreme point is known to mariners by the name of Dagerort, a light-houſe is maintained for their benefit. It ſtands about three miles from the ſea, on a mountain computed to be twenty-two fathoms in perpendicular height.

No peſtilential diſeaſe was ever known to make any ravages here; and the population is ſo great, that the eſtates are almoſt burdened by the ſuperfluity of people. Accordingly in ſummer many of them go to the main-land and gain a livelihood by ditching, bricklaying, plaſtering, &c. where likewiſe whole families are often ſold. The land is not ſufficient

cient to their ſupport, and the landlords would derive no profit from their eſtates if they were obliged to maintain their vaſſals. As they cannot all live by agriculture, many turn their hands to various arts and handicrafts, in which, by their uncommon ingenuity, they ſucceed ſo well as ſufficiently to confute the prejudice concerning the ſtupidity of the Eſthonians. We find among them numbers of expert workmen in gold and ſilver, turners, clockmakers, lockſmiths, carpenters, joiners, and even ſhip-builders. The majority of the country-people are Eſthonians; yet here are many, even whole villages of ſwediſh boors: all of theſe however have not equal privileges with the former. The iſland is deficient neither in foreſts nor in ſtone. On the weſtern part is much ſand; but the ſouthern and eaſtern parts conſiſt of a blueiſh clay, and therefore a fertile ſoil. Accordingly a conſiderable quantity of good corn is produced; only the ſeed requires to be ſown ſomewhat early. Barley thrives well in rainy ſeaſons. The counts de la Gardie were the principal proprietors in the iſland, and four capital eſtates now belong to one of their deſcendants, the counteſs Steinbock. The ſand-banks that lie about Dago, at low-water reſemble iſlands; but in long weſternly winds are overflowed. Near the Pahalep church are the ruins of an antient caſtle, which the boors call Vallipea, denoting a fortreſs, and which they pretend to take its date even from the heatheniſh

wild fowl, they have woodcocks, ducks, eagles, hawks, crows, mews, ſparrows, yellow-hammers, chaffinches, &c. magpies are not to be ſeen, though they abound on all the continent of theſe parts. Seals are caught in great abundance; and dolphins are often taken. Of the kinds of fiſh, herrings * are in the greateſt plenty. Lead-ore is ſaid to have been found here.

TYTERSAARI is a round iſland, pretty high, but not above ten verſts in circuit. It lies eighteen verſts to the ſouth-eaſt of Hochland. As appendages, on the weſtern ſide, or in the ſound between it and Hochland, it has four ſmall iſles, quite low, but pretty far aſunder: Kleintitter, the two Viri, and Vuotcalla, and on the ſouthern ſide a ſtony ground, ſeven or eight verſts in length, to the Narva paſſage; hence, it is hardly poſſible to land on this iſland. A third part of it is rock, another third is moraſs, and the reſt an arid and ſterile ſand-hill. The iſland has no ſprings. The ſeal fiſhery is here conſiderable. The inhabitants live together in one village.

LAVANSAARI is ſeven verſts long and four verſts broad. It is diſtant from St. Peterſburg a hundred and twenty verſts, and from Vyborg eighty-two. Of all the iſlands in the gulf of Finland this is the moſt populous, except Cronſtadt, containing upwards of forty families, It is ſurrounded on the

* Clupea.

north-

north-west side by several petty isles and shallows; it has however no less than three harbours, capacious enough for even a large ship to run into. In the middle of the island is a lake, small indeed, but full of fish. Somewhat of agriculture is in practice here; and formerly there were specimens of forests. The animals on this, are the same as on the foregoing islands.

PENISAARI is only three versts long and half a verst broad, and lies six versts from Lavansaari. It is inhabited only by a few families, and has no water-springs.

SEITSAARI is five versts long, and about half as much in breadth, and is ninety-five versts from St. Petersburg, and seventy-five from Vyborg. The sand-banks here reach as far as to the Petersburg channel, and, being invisible from their lying under water, are so dangerous in dark nights, that in this place alone not fewer vessels have been lost than in all other parts of the gulf of Finland together. The land is everywhere unfruitful; in some of the marshes there is indeed a slight crop of hay. Great numbers of eels and stone pearch are caught here. The herring and seal fishery is here also considerable. The inhabitants make up about twenty families. Here is likewise a light-house.

CRONSTADT. This island was called by the Finns, Retusari, and by the Russians Kotloi ostrof*. In 1723, together with the town, it

* Kettle-island.

obtained

obtained the name of Cronſtadt. It is ſituate at the eaſtern extremity of the gulf of Finland, which, from this iſle to Peterſburg, is called the gulf of Cronſtadt. It lies weſt-north-weſt of St. Peterſburg five and twenty verſts; is ſeven verſts from Oranienbaum, and from Seſtrabek twelve. The iſland, from eaſt to weſt, is thirteen verſts long, by about two and a half in breadth; is flat, ſomewhat about eight fathom higher than the water-level; has ſome wood, chiefly birch, the black alder, and ſome firs. The ſoil, as is ſeen in digging the canals and docks, conſiſts, under the ſcanty ſod, of layers of clay, ſand, and limeſtone. Two petty iſlands on its ſouth ſide are occupied by forts, one of which is called Cronſlot, and the other fort St. Alexander. There is ſtill a third, on the northern ſide of the channel, ſmaller than either of theſe, bearing the name of St John. Cronſtadt was built by Peter the great in 1710, as a town, and harbour for ſhips of war and merchantmen, to which purpoſes he had already deſigned it on laying the foundations of St. Peterſburg. The town comprehends the eaſternmoſt part of the iſland, is ſpacious, containing a number of good houſes, churches, and public edifices; but, on account of many inferior buildings, mean houſes, vacant places, &c. by no means handſome. It is populous, eſpecially in the ſhipping ſeaſon, when the ſtreets are thronged with mariners from all the ports of Europe, particularly the Engliſh; on whoſe account, as well as thoſe of our countrymen, who are ſtationary on this iſland for

for the purpoſes of commerce, here is a chapel maintained by the Ruſſia company of London, at which the ſervice of the church of England is regularly performed every Sunday throughout the year, by a reſident miniſter. The Lutherans have alſo a church on this iſland, for the uſe of the Germans. Numerous as the inhabitants of this place are, from the fleet lying here, the garriſon, the cuſtom-houſe, the corps de cadets, the labourers in the docks, yards, &c. together with their connections, and the families that live here for the reaſons above-mentioned, yet the number of regiſtered burghers is but ſmall; in the year 1783, they were only two hundred and four. The man-of-war's mole, as it is called, in its preſent ſtate, is well worth the attention of the curious, and accordingly is viſited by the numerous travellers that take Peterſburg in their route, with great ſatisfaction. It is incloſed by a ſtrong and elegant rampart built of granite in the ſea, under the direction of that gallant commander and upright man, the late admiral Samuel Greig, to whoſe unwearied activity and uncommon talents the ruſſian navy is ſo highly indebted, and whoſe loſs will not eaſily be compenſated to the empire. Here are alſo the celebrated Peter's-canal, and the docks. The canal was begun under Peter the great, and completed by general Lubras in the reign of Elizabeth. At the end of the canal ſtand two pyramidal columns with inſcriptions relative to this undertaking. It is lined with maſonry, is 1050 fathoms long, in

breadth at the bottom ſixty fathoms, and at top a hundred; it is twenty-four fathoms deep, and in this manner ſtretches three hundred and fifty-eight fathoms into the ſea. Adjoining to the canal are the docks, in which ten and more ſhips of the line may be refitted at once. They are furniſhed with floodgates for admitting and letting out the men of war. The water is evacuated from the baſon by a ſteam-engine conſtructed by an engliſh engineer, and is worked by coals from England. Here is a foundery for caſting cannon-balls, under the direction of that ingenious artiſt Mr. Baird, from North Britain; and a rope-walk for making ſhip's cables of all ſizes. — The marine cadet-corps was founded by Peter the great in 1715, for the education of ſea-officers; and the empreſs Elizabeth enlarged it in 1752, for three hundred and ſixty pupils. It is now removed to Peterſburg, on the Vaſſilli-oſtrof, where it had been before it was placed at Cronſtadt; being under the ſuperintendance of an admiral, till lately admiral Kutuſof, and having officers of the navy for its inſpectors. The cadets are of noble families, and divided into three companies of a hundred and twenty each. They are inſtructed in languages, geography, aſtronomy, naval architecture, and navigation, in climbing the ſhrowds, in handling the rigging, ſwimming, &c. The greater lads who are called mariners, are taught all the functions of the ſervice; and, in order to become midſhipmen, the loweſt rank of officers, muſt have made three

voyages

voyages as cadets. Their uniform is green, with white facings and under-clothes. — The marine hoſpital at Cronſtadt is on a very extenſive ſcale. In 1788, it had at ſeveral times 25,007 patients; and in 1789, it had 16,809. Of the former number 20,924 went out cured, and of the latter 12,974.

BALTIC PORT. This is the ſame with Rogervyk, from Rog, the iſland in which it is formed.

SECTION V.

Of the inland Seas, and principal Lakes of Ruſſia.

The Caſpian.

THIS large body of water, being not viſibly connected with any of the great oceans, and apparently not having an outlet, has been thought by ſome writers not properly to deſerve the appellation of a ſea, but to be more fitly claſſed among the larger lakes. However, on account of its fiſhery and the perſian commerce it is of great conſequence to the empire.

The Caſpian, mare Caſpium, was antiently called by the Greeks the Hyrcanian ſea; the Tartars give it the name of Akdinghis, the White-ſea; by the Georgians it is termed the Kurtſhenſkian ſea, and the Perſians denominate it Gurſen, from the old perſian capital, Gurgan, which is ſaid to have ſtood

in the province of Aſtrabat, only ſeven verſts from the ſea. The name Hyrcanian ſea is as much as to ſay the perſian ſea; for, in the perſian language, Perſia is not called the perſian, but the Hyrcanian empire. The Caſpian reaches in length, from about the 37th to the 47th degree of north latitude, and in breadth, where it is the wideſt, from the 65th to the 74th degree of longitude. Its ſuperficial contents amount to above 36,000 ſquare miles, engliſh *. The antient geographers had but a very imperfect knowledge of it. Some thought it was connected with the Frozen-ocean, while others were of opinion that it joined with the Euxine. Ptolemy, among others, embraced the latter hypotheſis; affirming that there was a ſubterraneous communication between the waters of both: as, otherwiſe it was not to be explained how ſo many large rivers ſhould flow into the Caſpian, for which there was not one channel out of it. And, indeed, who can wonder at the difficulty in which they found themſelves involved? For what becomes of the waters of the Volga, the Yaik, the Yemba, the Kur,

* What M. Pallas ſays of the antient extent and decline of the Caſpian highly deſerves peruſal, in his travels, part iii. p. 569 & ſeq. But the inſertion of it here would render the article too prolix for the deſign of this work. It is not only probable that its antient ſhore might be fixed at the Obſhtſhei-Syrt, but that the Caſpian was once connected with the Baltic, and this again with the Euxine; whereof a proof may be ſeen in the quality of the earth in all theſe parts.

or Cyrus, of the Araxes, the Byſtraia, the Akſa, the Koiſa, the Terek, and the numberleſs others that flow into it? By the ſun alone they cannot be evaporated *; there is no viſible outlet for them; and yet the ſea is never perceptibly ſwollen, except merely in the ſpring on the melting of the ſnows.

They who have recourſe to ſubterraneous paſſages, through which it muſt flow into the perſian ſea, or more probably into the Euxine, uſually bring two arguments in ſupport of their notion. In the firſt place, ſay they, the Caſpian riſes very high in a weſterly wind; whereas the Euxine, on the contrary, rages moſt when the wind is at eaſt: conſequently, the eaſt wind favours the exit of the waters of the Caſpian, and the weſt wind impedes it. But this is a fallacia, cauſa non cauſa. All the winds that bring humid vapours with them are more ſtormy than thoſe which come from arid regions. But now the weſt-wind comes hither from the Euxine and the Palus Mœotis. Conſequently the Caſpian muſt neceſſarily be put in more vehement agitation by it.

Secondly, it is pretended that there is in this ſea a whirlpool, which, with a horrid noiſe, ſwallows up all the ſuperfluous water, and diſcharges it into the Euxine. In proof of this, it is farther urged, that a ſpecies of ſea-weed, growing only on the

* For a more particular diſcuſſion of this matter, the reader is referred to the ſtate of Ruſſia, by the ingenious Capt. Perry, p. 100 & ſeq. printed at London, 1716.

ſhores of the Caſpian, is found at the mouth of this tremendous vortex. To which they add, that near to this vortex is a ſort of fiſh caught no where elſe but in the Euxine. And laſtly, that in days of yore, a fiſh was taken in the Caſpian ſea, with a golden ring about its tail, on which was this inſcription: Mithridates mihi dabat in urbe Sinope libertatem et hoc donum *. But later accounts know nothing of a whirlpool; the fiſhes that are ſaid to be found only there and in the Euxine, we ſhall be better able to ſpeak of when they are more accurately deſcribed; and the ſtory from Kircher has very much the air of a fiction. Sea-weed grows everywhere on the ſhores of this ſea, from Aſtrakhan to Sulak, and thence again to the muganian ſteppe.

The natural evaſion of the waters of the Caſpian into the Euxine is therefore an ungrounded hypotheſis. An artificial channel was attempted by Seleucus Nicanor, after the death of Alexander the great: but, from cauſes unknown to us, his attempt proved abortive. However, it is aſſerted by travellers, that traces of very deep vallies are ſtill to be ſeen, through which the canal is ſaid to have gone. In the reign of Peter I. it was that the Caſpian began to be more accurately ſurveyed, when it was found to be in length about eleven hundred verſts from the mouth of the Ural to the coaſt of the Maſanderan: its greateſt width

* Kircher, Mund. ſubterr. lib. ii. cap. 13.

from

from the mouth of the Terek to the extremity of the bay of Mertvoï Kultyuk, is 8°, rather more than ſeven hundred verſts. At its ſouthern extremity, from the point of Lenkeron to the peninſula ſituate at the mouth of the bay of Balkan, 6°, ſomewhat more than five hundred and twenty-five verſts, and at its greateſt width 2° 35′, or two hundred and twenty-five verſts. Its circumference, comprehending the great gulfs (though excluding the little ſinuoſities) is 4180 verſts.

The coaſts of the Caſpian, northward, from the Terek towards the weſt, as far as the eaſtern extremity of the bay of Mertvoï Kultyuk, are low, flat, ſwampy, and overgrown with reeds; the water too is ſhallow. On the other ſhores from the Terek to the deſart of Korgan near Aſtrabat, and from the northern part of the bay of Balkan to that of Mertvoï Kultyuk the country is mountainous, the ſhores bold, and the water very deep. Of the rivers that were formerly ſuppoſed to diſembogue into it, ſeveral do not exiſt, for inſtance the Yakſartes and the Oxus, which were pretended to flow hither from the eaſt *. The chief of thoſe that are known to fall into it are: The Emba, the Ural, the Volga, the Kumma, the Terek, the

* The Yaxartes is the Syr-Daria that falls into the Aral. The Oxus is the Ula, or the Amu-Daria, which takes its riſe in the Aral. See d'Anville, Muller, Dictionaire Geographique de Poloudinier, article Aral, and the general charts of the academy of Peterſburg.

Sulak, the Agrakhan, the Kur, and the Aras.—It is related as a ſtriking peculiarity of the Caſpian, that during thirty or thirty-five years its waters are conſtantly increaſing, and then for the ſame term continually decreaſe; but this ſtory is unſupported by any ſtated obſervations. Much more certain are the violent and dangerous ſtorms * which frequently happen on this ſea. The ground in many places, not far from the ſhore, is already ſo deep that a line of four hundred and fifty fathom will not reach it. The water in general is ſalt; though not in all places, particularly not in thoſe where the great rivers empty themſelves into it. The ſhores are for the moſt part flat, and only on the eaſt ſide mountainous.

Perhaps the true reaſon of this ſea remaining equally full, is to be ſought in the quality of its bottom; which conſiſts, not of a thick ſlime, but of a ſhell-ſand, the particles whereof touching but in few points, it is conſequently very porous. Of the ſame ſubſtance the whole ſhore is likewiſe formed. Layer upon layer it lies three fathoms deep. This indeed lets the freſh water through, but it becomes immediately ſalt again by the ſalt water preſſing on it. Through this ſand then the water is filtered, and falls into the abyſs beneath in the ſame quantity as it flows into the ſea.

In the bay of Emba, above the river Yaïk, the reverſe is ſeen. The water there is not let through:

* Burun.

it

it therefore ſtagnates, and even the fiſhes putrify. Its exhalations are extremely noxious. The wind that blows over this bay has been known to come on with ſuch ſurpriſing force as to throw down the ſentinels of the ruſſian forts erected here, with ſo much violence as to kill them.

Of the fiſh with which theſe parts abound our accounts are not very circumſtantial. The ſalmon, however, are as good as thoſe of Riga and Archangel, and even more fleſhy and fat. The herrings too are remarkably large, and plumper than the engliſh and dutch, but not ſo tender.

This ſea gives nouriſhment to myriads of the winged race. Storks, herons, bitterns, ſpoonbills, red geeſe, red ducks, and numberleſs others. But the moſt beautiful of all is the red gooſe *. It has however nothing in common with a gooſe, neither is it red, but white; the tips of the wings indeed, round the eyes, the beak and the feet are ſcarlet. It is of the ſize of a ſtork, has a long neck and high legs, is very ſavoury to the taſte, and lives on fiſh. It may be called Ciconia, vel ardea, roſtro adunco lato brevi.

A ſpecies of red wild ducks is alſo frequent here, which fly in the evening to the tops of the trees and the roofs of houſes, where they perform a noiſy concert. Their fleſh is well taſted, not oily, though, like other water-fowl, they feed on fiſh.

* Ruſſ. kraſnaia gus.

Of

Of leeches here are two kinds, the hog-leech and the dog-leech. Their holes have two apertures, one towards the ſouth and the other facing the north, which they open and ſhut according to the change of the wind.

On the ſhore, between Terki and Derbent, grows a graſs on which all the quadrupeds feed with avidity: to the horſe alone the eating of it is fatal. They die upon the ſpot. Peter the great cauſed the experiment to be made in his preſence, and the common report was found to be true.

The Caſpian contains a conſiderable number of iſlands, moſtly ſandy; and to the fiſh above-mentioned we may add the following: the ſterlet, two kinds of ſturgeon, ſeals, and porpoiſes. Flux and reflux have here never been perceived.

The principal harbours and roads of the Caſpian are: 1. Derbent; which, however, ſcarcely deſerves that name; and even the road, by reaſon of its rocky bottom, is very incommodious. 2. Niſovaia-priſtan, over-againſt the mouth of the river Niſabat, where there is a good road of firm ſand. 3. Baku; here is the beſt haven in the whole Caſpian, being full two fathoms in depth. 4. Sallian, in the northern arm of the river Kur. 5. Enſili, or Sinſili, has indeed but an indifferent roadſtead, yet it is one of the principal ports of trade. 6. Medſhetifar, and Farabat. 7. Tukaragan and

Man-

Manghiſhlak, have good harbours — The governments of Uſimſk and Caucaſus border on the Caſpian.

The Baikal.

It lies in the government of Irkutſk, and extends from the 51ſt to above the 55th degree of north latitude. The Ruſſians ſtyle it a ſea, morè Baikal *; but, if the Caſpian be not allowed that title, the Baikal can ſtill leſs pretend to it; however, the Ruſſians honour it yet farther by giving it that other name of Svetoie morè, the holy ſea. Whether it be lake or ſea, next to the Caſpian it is the largeſt body of water in the ruſſian empire. In length it is between five hundred and ſix hundred verſts, and in its various breadths is twenty, thirty, fifty, and in ſome places ſeventy verſts: being ſurrounded almoſt entirely with high and moſtly bare mountains. Towards the latter end of December it is uſually frozen over, and in the beginning of May the ice breaks up. The water of the Baikal is uncommonly clear, but it is ſubject to frequent ſtorms, and theſe very violent, particularly in September. It abounds in fiſh, and contains, among others, great ſhoals of a ſpecies of herring, there called omuli. Here are alſo plenty of ſeals. The Baikal has ſome iſlands, whereof the principal bears the name of Olkhon, in the proximity whereof

* Mare Baikal.

ſulphur

ſulphur ſources are found. Among the rivers that empty themſelves into this ſea, the principal are: the upper Angara, the Barguſin, and the Selenga, which join it from the north, the eaſt, and the ſouth; whereas, only one ſtream, the great Angara, in the weſt, derives its origin from it. Travellers intending to go beyond Irkutſk, into the remoter eaſtern parts of Siberia, commonly take their paſſage acroſs the Baikal. There is indeed a road that lead rounds it, but it is attended with great difficulties.

The LADOGA lake. It lies in the government of Vyborg, between the gulf of Finland and the lake of Onega. In antient times it is ſaid to have been called Nebo. Being in length a hundred and ſeventy-five, and in breadth a hundred and five verſts; it is reckoned one of the largeſt lakes in Europe. It produces a great number of ſeals. On account of the perilous ſtorms to which it is liable, and the ſeveral ſand-banks that are ever ſhifting their poſition, Peter the great cauſed the famous ladoga canal to be dug along its ſhore, from the Volkhof into the Neva; which canal is a hundred and four verſts long, ten ſajènes broad, one ſajène and a half deep, and has twenty-five ſluices. By the Neva the Ladoga is connected with the Baltic; by the Svir with the Onega; and by the Volkhof with the Ilmen. Into the canal flow the rivers Lipke, Naſia, Sheldika, Lava, and Kabona; into the lake, the rivers Paſha, Siæs, Oiæt, &c. — whereas the Neva

Neva alone runs out of it. — Both ſhores of the lake belong to Ruſſia, which have everywhere a flat coaſt and a ſandy beach. On this ſhore it has alſo a few low fiſhery iſlands and a ſandy bottom. That part of the northern ſide which lies in the government of Olonetz has marble on its coaſt, whence ſome of thoſe beautiful and durable kinds of finniſh marble are brought to St. Peterſburg. As the bed of this lake, for a great extent, is in the loweſt part of the country, it receives beſides the above-mentioned rivers, the waters that come from the alum hills; all of which, as before obſerved, have no other outlet than the Neva.

The lake ONEGA. It lies in the government of Olonetz, between the Ladoga and the White-ſea. Its length is between a hundred and eighty and two hundred verſts, and its breadth from ſixty to eighty. Like the Ladoga it contains a few iſlands conſiſting of marble, and in all other properties is much the ſame. With other rivers, the Vitegra falls into it on the ſouth-eaſt ſide, which river takes its riſe not far from the Koſſha, which falls into the Bielo-ozero. On the Koſſha is the priſtan Badoga, and on the Vitegra the priſtan Vitegorſkaia, which are only about forty verſts aſunder. Now, as from the Onega the navigable river Svir runs into the Ladoga; and from the Bielo-ozero the Shekſna flows into the Volga, there needs only a canal to be cut the ſaid diſtance of forty verſts, for connecting the Neva with the Volga, which would be much more convenient for the navi-

gation

gation here than the paſſage by Viſhnoi-volotſhok, becauſe there are no waterfalls, and therefore all the danger and trouble attending them in the preſent paſſage would be obviated.

The lake Peipus, or Tſhudſkoe-ozero. It lies beween the governments of Pſcove, Reval, Riga, and St. Peterſburg, extending in length to about eighty, and in breadth to ſixty verſts. By means of a very broad ſtrait it is connected with the Pſcove lake, the length of which is ſtated to be fifty, and the breadth, which is always decreaſing, forty verſts. This latter receives the river Velikaia. Out of the Peipus comes the Narova, which through the Embach has communication with the Vertz-erb lake; out of this, on the other hand, flows the Fellin into the gulf of Riga; and conſequently a very beneficial water paſſage might be made between Riga and ſome of the inland provinces, by way of the Peipus lake. — The commodities which go to Narva along the Narova are obliged, on account of the falls in that river, to be carried a great way by land. There are a few ſmall iſlands in the Peipus, but not of conſequence enough to deſerve much notice, excepting indeed Porka or Bork, called by the Eſthonians Porkaſaar, which is not only inhabited, but is furniſhed with foreſts, and has no leſs than three villages upon it. A little gulf that is conſtantly incroaching more and more upon the land, may, in no great ſpace of time, compel the inhabitants in its vicinity to ſhift their habitations. —

Among the ſeveral brooks and rivers that flow into the Peipus, the Embach is the moſt conſiderable. The exit is through the Narva river into the gulf of Finland. It greatly facilitates the commerce between Pſcove, Dorpat, and Narva; though this advantage might doubtleſs be rendered more beneficial, and extended to more diſtricts by ſome improvements; particularly if Dorpat could be enabled to ſend the products of the circumjacent country by water to Narva. Inſtead of ſix horſes and as many men, the tranſport of a load of rye would then require only two people. —In ſtormy weather the badly-built barks and other veſſels are not unfrequently very much damaged; an inconvenience that might eaſily be prevented by orders from the magiſtracy to conſtruct the veſſels by certain regulations. — The vaſt multitudes of fiſh that breed in this lake afford a lucrative occupation to the boors of theſe parts, and increaſe the revenues of the adjoining eſtates, the owners of which let out the parts on which their lands abut at a certain rent. The corn lands adjacent to the ſhores are by no means ſufficient to the nouriſhment of the people employed in the fiſheries; this deficiency, however, is abundantly ſupplied in autumn and winter, by the barter of fiſh againſt flour. The fiſh are principally, rebſe, a ſpecies of herring, and barbel. The former are ſold from thirty to ninety kopeeks a thouſand. A hundred barbel will coſt from three to ſix rubles, but for a live one they will get at leaſt twenty kopeeks.

Beſide

Beſide theſe, here are caught pike, pearch, a ſpecies of carp, whiting, quabb, koruſhki, gudgeons, &c. The pike and ſome others are dried in the air and exported; the rebſe are ſometimes ſmoked. If the fiſhermen were rich enough to keep a proviſion of ſalt always ready for ſalting what they do not immediately ſell of a good capture, they would not be obliged to throw away ſo much putrid fiſh as they do, to the loſs of their profit and their labour.

The ILMEN lake, formerly Moiſk, lies in the government of Novgorod, and is about forty verſts in length and thirty in breadth. It receives the rivers Mſta, Lovat, Shelon, &c. and gives birth to the Volkhof alone.

The BIELO-OZERO, or White-lake, is in the ſame government with the foregoing; is about fifty verſts long and thirty broad, and receives into it ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams. The only one that flows out of it is the Shekſna, which falls into the Volga. The water of this lake is clear, having a bottom partly clay and partly ſtony. The clay is generally of a white colour, and in ſtormy weather cauſes a ſtrong white foam upon the ſurface of the water. Doubtleſs it is from this circumſtance that the lake firſt obtained its name Bielo *. It contains plenty of fiſh and crabs.

The lake TSHANY lies partly in the government of Tobolſk and partly in that of Kolhyvan. It

* White.

communi-

communicates with the lakes Moloki and Abiſhkan, is of a very conſiderable circuit, and abounds in fiſh.

The lake ALTYN-NOOR, or Teletzkoe-ozero, lies in the government of Kolhyvan, on a very conſiderable elevation of the altaian mountains, by which it is alſo entirely ſurrounded. Its length is computed at a hundred and twenty-ſix, and its greateſt breadth at eighty-four verſts. From this lake ariſes the famous river By, which, at its conjunction with the Katunia, takes the name of Oby.

Of the chief navigable Rivers of Ruſſia.

So vaſt an empire as that of Ruſſia cannot but have a great number of conſiderable rivers. I ſhall here only take notice of the moſt material, arranging them according to the ſeveral ſeas into which they flow.

Rivers that flow into the Baltic.

The DUNA. This is named by the Ruſſians ſapadnaia Dvina, and by the Lithuanians Daugava. It derives its origin from a lake in the government of Tver, at Biala, not far from the ſources of the Volga, purſues its courſe through this and the government of Pſcove, conſtitutes the boundary between the government of Polotzk and Riga, the republic of Poland and the duchy of Courland,

and falls not far from Riga, at Dunamunde, into the Baltic. In its courſe it takes up ſeveral ſmaller rivers, as, the Toroptza, the Eveſt, the Oger, and the Yagel, and from Courland the Bulder-Aa. The Duna is navigable all the way from its uppermoſt regions, facilitating the commerce from ſeveral governments, and from Poland and Courland, to an uncommon degree. About a thouſand veſſels and barks, of various dimenſions, paſs annually along it, to and from the aforeſaid towns. It has however one inconvenience, which is, that near Dunamunde, there are a great many ſhoals, every year increaſing and ſhifting their poſitions, which occaſions much difficulty in the navigation. To this inconvenience may be added another, that, in the Dunaburg circle, there are ſeveral falls, the ſhooting whereof is attended with great difficulty and danger. Some reckon theſe falls at fourteen in number. I ſhall only mention one near Seleburg, another by Lennevarden, and a third adjacent to Rummel. This third is the laſt the veſſels have to ſhoot before they come to Riga; the firſt is higheſt and moſt dangerous; a concealed point of rock threatens all the floats and veſſels that ſhoot the fall with imminent deſtruction, and numbers, at low water, periſh without redemption. The ſteerſman, notwithſtanding he has taken a pilot on board, muſt exert the utmoſt caution. The noiſe of the water allowing of no oral commands, they are uſually given by the hand or by waving the cap; and

and the people juſt ere they come to the verge of the watery precipice, fall down on their knees and pray. The frequent diſaſters that happen here are very profitable to the couriſh boors that lurk in the adjacent caverns, for the purpoſe of appropriating to themſelves what they can from the wreck. No remedy has hitherto been deviſed for this great nuiſance. Between Uexkull and the Rummel, in the bed of the river, lie a number of large ſtones, ſome of which have been already blown up at the expence of the corporation of Riga. Theſe obſtacles do not allow at all ſeaſons of the year a free paſſage, which is only commodious or attended with the leaſt danger at high water in the ſpring. The few veſſels whoſe owners reſolve on a voyage back, againſt the ſtream, are obliged not only to be drawn by men, but muſt be unloaded at the falls. The conſtant defection of the water in ſummer renders the voyage ſtill more difficult and tedious; on the early coming on of autumnal froſts utterly impoſſible. — At Riga the Duna is nine hundred paces broad. Here annually in April a bridge of pontons is thrown acroſs it, and faſtened by poles, except the part that opens to let the ſhips go through, which is fixed to anchors. Generally in November the river is covered with ice, which in March or April again breaks up. The froſt not unfrequently makes the river paſſable on foot in the ſpace of eight-and-forty hours. The bridge is then taken away, and ſafely laid by in a

ſmall arm of the river, called the Soodgraben. The whole ſummer through, the great number of ſhips of all nations lying cloſe to the bridge on both ſides, is allowed by all travellers to be a fine ſight. — This Duna is the port of Riga. — But, as nothing is perfect, this beneficent river often puts the city and the circumjacent territory into the moſt ſerious alarm, and does them conſiderable miſchief. In the ſpring ſeaſon the ice drives hither from Lithuania; while about the town and to the ſea all is ſtill faſt. The outlet being ſtopped, and the accumulation continually augmenting, the moſt lamentable inundations have been frequently occaſioned. That of the year 1771 is from the loſs of people, houſes, and cattle, and a damage of more than two hundred thouſand dollars in amount, ſtill freſh in the memory of all men. In 1770, the cutting-through of the ſolid ice greatly facilitated the evaſion of what was floating, which alſo run off in 1772, without cauſing any damage. The ſalmon of the Duna are the moſt excellent and the deareſt of all Livonia. To conclude, this river has in general a ſandy and clayey ſhore, and a diſcoloured water.

The NEVA. It draws its current from the lake of Ladoga, traverſes the government of St. Peterſburg for ſixty verſts in length, flowing through the city, and at laſt falling in ſeveral arms into the gulf of Cronſtadt. It reaches the city under the walls of the Nevſki monaſtery, after having juſt above it

admitted the waters of the rivulet Ochta. The ſeveral mouths of the Neva are all within the city; and are called: the Nevka, which runs on the right ſide, in the Vyborg quarter, among the hoſpitals, and flows in a beautiful ſtream, north-weſtward and then weſtward into the gulf. On its weſtern direction it divides on the right into the great Nevka, and on the left into the little Nevka, thereby, and by croſs arms, forming iſlands. Acroſs this diviſion runs the Karpovka, a moraſs-brook, from its left ſide, to the little Nevka, and thereby forms the Apothecary iſland. The Nevka, the great * Nevka, and the little † Nevka, are from fifty to a hundred fathom broad, have ſhallow places, ſome of which are often dry, good neva-water, and flow ſluggiſhly. The FONTANKA goes from the Nevka, on the right of the Neva, flowing as a ſlow moraſs-brook, firſt ſouthernly, then weſtward parallel with the Neva, to the Cronſtadt gulf, into which, with the great Neva, it formerly fell into two arms. In the former reigns it had been deepened and lined with ſides of timber, but gradually filled up again, and in ſummer was partially dry. By order of her late majeſty it was dug afreſh, to a bed of one fathom in depth, and in breadth ten or twelve, and its ſides faced with hewn granite raiſed on piles to the height of a fathom above the water's level, with an iron baluſtrade; and without ſide of this, a pavement five feet broad

* Bolſhaia Nevka. † Malaia Nevka.

of granite flags, for the accommodation of foot paſſengers. Its banks are now full of fine flowing neva-water, is navigable for barks of burden, and conſtitutes one of the chief ornaments of this imperial reſidence, worthy of the great and benign ſovereign who honoured it with her throne and her preſence. The expence of this undertaking, which Catharine the ſecond begun in 1780, by general Bauer, and completed in 1789, by prince Vaſemſkoi, was truly imperial. The length of the river is nearly three thouſand fathoms or about ſix verſts. Every fathom of which on either ſide, without reckoning the digging of the river, or the procuring and the driving of the numberleſs piles for the ground-work, and excluſively of the ſumptuous bridges of ornamented granite that croſs it at various diſtances, the embanking it alone with granite coſt at firſt a hundred and eighty-two rubles, but this price gradually roſe higher and higher, till at laſt three hundred rubles were paid for every fathom in length on either ſide. — The MOIKA runs from the right of the Fontanka, not far below its departure from the Neva, and flows almoſt parallel with it, wherein it falls to the left of the great Neva, cloſe above its mouth. It was a moraſs-brook, like the Fontanka, and like it had been dug out in one of the former reigns, and faced with wooden walls. In this ſtate it ſtill remains, much choaked up in various parts, conſequently the water runs very ſlowly in ſummer, and is far worſe than that of the Neva; however it is

uſeful

uſeful for culinary purpoſes. The empreſs had ſignified her intention of having this river dug out and banked with granite, for the benefit and decoration of the city. — The KATARINA-CANAL, was likewiſe a ſwamp-ſtream, running above the Moika, and falling into the right ſide of the Fontanka, not far above its mouth. Catharine the ſecond cauſed it to be made between ſeven and eight fathom wide, and one fathom deep for its bed, and to be faced on both ſides, for its whole length of four verſts, with granite, like the Fontanka, and to be furniſhed with foot-ways, an iron baluſtrade, and deſcents for the conveniency of taking up water. An arm of it, finiſhed in the ſame manner, runs by the Nikolai church, from the right ſide of the Katarina-canal, to the Neva, and is called, The NIKOLAI-CANAL. That, named after the ſovereign, the Katarina-canal, was begun in 1764, and finiſhed in 1790. It has very much drained the low quarter of the town through which it paſſes, and procured it the advantage of pure running water, and a paſſage for barks loaded with wood for fuel, iron, and other neceſſaries. — The LITTLE NEVA * goes off from the main river on the right ſide under the walls of the fortreſs, and flows weſt-north-weſtward to the gulf. It is broader than the great Neva, but more ſhallow, and purpoſely rendered innavigable by Peter the great, on account of Sweden and the cuſtoms. Its right

* Malaia Neva.

ſhore is left in its natural ſtate, without buttreſs, and has a parallel arm at the Petrovka, which, flowing to the Nevka, forms the iſle Petrovſk. The left ſhore has above, as far as the buildings on the Vaſſilli-oſtrof reach, a buttreſs of timber, and lower down, in the woods, two moraſſy collateral arms that form iſlands, and are called Tſhernaia retchka, or the black rivulet. — Having made this diſtribution of waters, the main ſtream, or the great Neva, flows, in a ſouth-weſtward direction, from a hundred and fifty to upwards of two hundred fathoms in breadth, and in ſome places of great depth, into the Cronſtadt-gulf. Its right bank, as far as the buildings on the Vaſſilli-oſtrof reach, is ſupported by a wooden buttreſs five or ſix foot high. The whole extent of the left-hand bank, Catharine the ſecond cauſed to be quayed with granite, from the foundery to the fartheſt extremity of the Galerenhof, excepting only the ſpace in front of the admiralty. This grand work, which was begun in 1764, and completed in 1788, is diſtinguiſhed from the ſtone margin of the Fontanka by ſtill greater ſtrength and more magnificence. The ground under water is rammed with piles for three fathom in breadth, with long trunks of fir trees, two fathoms and a half in length. Theſe piles were driven during the winter by engines placed on the ice, and in the ſummer ſawn deep under the ſurface of the water, by machines contrived for that purpoſe. This done, the foundation was laid, firſt by filling the interſtices of

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the piles with flints and pebbles, then placing upon this ſolid baſis ſeveral layers of flat pudoſſkoi plints, a hard kind of ſtone ſo called, conſolidated together by a tried cement, which was then built upon with ſquares of granite of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ foot thick, and the wall finiſhed above as a foot pavement a fathom broad, covered with ſimilar quadrats, at the height of ten feet above the water. The parapet is alſo of the ſame hewn granite, two feet and a half high, and one foot and a quarter in thickneſs. At certain diſtances openings are made in the quay for deſcending upon the ice in winter, and ſtairs with ſpacious landing-places and benches, for taking up water, unloading the barks, and for the repoſe and convenience of thoſe who walk here for buſineſs or pleaſure. Laſtly, the face of the wall is furniſhed with maſſy iron rings, for the faſtening of galliots, barks, barges, and other veſſels. This truly imperial quay is, for its length, which, deducting the ſpace before the admiralty, is 1650 fathom, or three verſts, for ſtrength, magnificence, and the coſt of building it, unequalled in Europe, and the conſtant ſubject of admiration to foreigners. — In the gulph of Cronſtadt, juſt facing the mouth of the Neva, near the ſouthern ſhore, lie two low marſhy iſlands, with bruſhwood upon them, of which the greater is called Dolgoi oſtrof, or Long iſland, where a conſiderable fiſhery is carried on. — Beſides theſe ſeveral ſtreams, there is another canal within the town, lined with brick-work and maſonry, ſurrounding the

the admiralty; likewiſe ſome ſhort canals with wooden ſides, which, running between the Neva and the Moika, part the galley wharf and New Holland. — The LIGOVA canal, twenty verſts long, has its water from the Duderhof hills, with which it ſupplies the fountains of the imperial ſummer gardens, diſtributing it alſo to the gardens of the late prince Potemkin, and at the ſame time ſupplying that quarter of the city with water.

The water of the Neva, and its ſeveral arms and running canals, which, beſides the Ligova canal, ſupplies the whole city, is to be ranked with the lighteſt, cleareſt, and pureſt of river waters. Foreigners indeed, for the firſt month or two of their ſtay at St. Peterſburg, perceive a certain alteration in their habit of body, becoming more lax than uſual, which has chiefly been laid to the charge of the neva water. This induced Model, and afterwards Georgi, both profeſſors of the imperial academy, to ſubmit it to a chemical proceſs: when the former found, in eighty medicinal pounds of the water, taken above the city, only ſixty-eight grains of calcareous earth and three grains of vegetable extract; and the latter, in fifty pounds of water, taken within the city, no more than forty grains of calcareous earth, and five grains of extract; he found it alſo very poor in air. The accident to foreigners ſeems, therefore, to be more owing to the change in their way of living and other cauſes, than to proceed from the water of the Neva, which amply

amply compenſates the want of wells and ſprings to the city.

In ſtill weather, the level of the water in the ſeveral outlets varies about two feet; ſtrong and continued eaſt winds drive the water quicker into the gulf, and accordingly it is three or four feet lower than the mean height. On the contrary, ſtrong, laſting weſt winds ſo greatly reſtrain the current that the river riſes about as much above its mean height. In continued ſtorms from the weſt, it riſes in the arms, meaſured at the fortreſs, five, ten, fifteen, and more feet. At five feet it overflows only the ſhores without buttreſſes in the weſtern quarter of the town; at ten feet and upwards of increaſed elevation, only the eaſtern part of the town remains not overflowed. This has frequently happened; but, by good luck, the inundations hitherto have always laſted only a ſhort time, generally but a few hours; and, by reaſon of the progreſſive heightening of the parts built upon, by the rubbiſh of old, and the materials of new erections, by digging canals, &c. they become more rare and leſs injurious.

Some thouſands of ſhips and barks annually paſs and repaſs the Neva, either coming from the inland parts of the empire, or from foreign countries acroſs the ſeas, bringing commodities and proviſions to the amount of ſeveral millions of rubles, to St. Peterſburg. — This river receives in its courſe the Ijora and the Toſna.

Rivers

Rivers that fall into the White-ſea.

The DVINA. This river is called by the Ruſſians ſievernaia Dvina, the northern Dvina; which name it firſt aſſumes on its junction with the two rivers the Sookhona and the Youga, which ariſe in the government of Vologda. This junction is formed at the city of Uſtiug, whence the Dvina takes a north-weſtward courſe; and at Archangel falls into the White-ſea, after having divided itſelf into two conſiderable arms. In its courſe it takes in ſome pretty large rivers, and ſeveral leſſer ſtreams, ſuch as, on the right, the Luſa, the Vichegda, and the Pinega; and to the left, the Vaga, the Yemza, &c. Oppoſite to the mouth of the Pinega ſtands the antient city Kholmogor. The merchant veſſels run into the eaſtern arm of the Dvina, on which the fort Novaia Dvinka is built; but at firſt the weſtern, where ſtands the monaſtery Korelſkoi monaſtir, was the moſt frequented. This however is now no longer paſſable. In general the ſhoals increaſe from year to year in both, and ſuch large ſhips cannot now run in as formerly. The Dvina has the honour of having given reception in 1553, to the firſt engliſh ſhip that ever came to Ruſſia. To conclude, it flows moſtly through a ſwampy and woody region, is navigable from Uſtiug, and is tolerably abundant in fiſh.

The KULOI, and the MESEN. Both flow eaſtward of the Dvina, into the White-ſea, not far from each

each other, in the diſtrict of the town of Meſenſk. The former takes its riſe in the government of Archangel; the latter in that of Vologda. In their not very extenſive courſe they admit the waters of ſeveral ſmaller rivers.

Rivers that fall into the Frozen ocean.

All theſe rivers have a very perceptible ebb and flow.

The PETSHORA, called alſo Bolſhaia, or great Petſhora; to diſtinguiſh it from the Viſhera, which the Siryanes call Petſhorya, whence originates the name Petſhora. The Petſhora takes its riſe in the weſtern ſide of the Ural-mountains in the government of Vologda, follows a north-weſt courſe, and falls into the Frozen ocean, in the government of Archangel, after dividing into ſeveral powerful arms. It now flows through a low, foreſty, and almoſt uninhabited country. At firſt, when Siberia was conquered, the way thither was generally by the Petſhora. They ſailed up the Dvina, the Vichegda, and the Vim, then went a ſhort ſpace by land to the Petſhora, then up that river, and by land over the Ural-mountains, to the Soſva, from this into the Tavda, the Tobol, the Irtyſh, the Oby, the Ket; and from the Ket into the Yeniſſey, &c.

The OBY. This originates properly in the Chineſe Soongoria, from whence it iſſues in a copious ſtream, under the name of Tſhuliſhman; and, in

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52 degrees north latitude, and 103° 30′ longitude, falls into the lake Teletzkoe, in the ruſſian territory. From this lake, which is called by the Tartars Altin-kul, it flows out again under the appellation of the By, not taking that of Oby till its junction with the Katunya. Of all the rivers of the ruſſian empire it is eſteemed the largeſt. In its upper regions it has a ſtrong current and ſeveral cataracts, but particularly a great number of iſlands, moſtly in the circle of Beroſof. At 67 degrees north latitude, and 86° longitude, it empties itſelf into the gulf of the ſame name, which unites it with the Frozen ocean in 73 degrees, 50 minutes north latitude, and 90 degrees of longitude. The principal rivers taken up in its courſe by the Oby, are, to the left; the Katunya, the Tſharyſh, the Alei, the Irtyſh, the Konda, and the Soſva; to the right, the Tſhumyſh, the Tom, the Tſhulym, the Ket, and the Voch. Up as far as the mouth of the Ket, the Oby has moſtly high and rocky ſhores; but farther on, quite to its entrance into the Frozen ocean, it, generally ſpeaking, flows over a clayey, ſandy, and marly bed. It is navigable till very near up to the Teletzkoe-ozero, uncommonly prolific in fiſh, and in many places is accompanied by foreſts of large pine and birch trees. The courſe of this river extends about three thouſand verſts. Of its collateral rivers,

1. The Irtysh is the moſt conſiderable. It riſes likewiſe in the Chineſe Soongoria; flows through the lake Norſaiſan, in north latitude 46 degrees

degrees 30 minutes, then enters the Ruſſian territory, and, after meandering through a large tract of country, throws itſelf in 61 north latitude, and 86 longitude, into the Oby. In its way it takes up the following rivers; to the right, the Buchtorma, the Ulba, the Uba, the Om, which is of a clear but black looking water, and the Tara, all of which again take in a multitude of ſmaller rivers and ſtreams: to the left, the Ablaket, the Dſargurban, the Iſhin, the Vagai, the Tobol, and the Konda. The Irtyſh forms ſeveral iſlands, whereof ſome diſappear at times, and their places are ſupplied by others; even its courſe is very variable, ſo that it is often navigable in a place where it was not before, and vice verſa. Its water in the inferior regions is whitiſh and light, whence it ſhould ſeem that it flows over a bottom moſtly of calcareous marl. It ſwarms with fiſh, and its ſturgeon are of a flavour particularly delicate.

2. The TOBOL takes its riſe in 52 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and 81 degrees longitude, in the country of the Kirghiſtzi, in the chain of mountains that parts it from the government of Ufa. It pours itſelf into the Irtyſh, at Tobolſk, after running a courſe of about five hundred verſts, during which it takes in the following rivers: the Ui, the Iſet, the Tura, and the Tavda, which all fall into it on the left. Of theſe the Tura is the largeſt; it riſes near Verkhoturia in the Ural-mountains, in about 59 degrees of north latitude, and glides into the Tobol in 57

degrees 30 min. after having taken up the rivers Balda, Tegil, Pyſhma, Nitza, &c. into which laſt mentioned, the Neiva, the Ætſh, and the Irbit flow. By this acceſſion of waters the Tura becomes a conſiderable river, not much inferior to the Tobol itſelf.—The Iſet is likewiſe a river of ſome conſequence. It riſes out of a lake two verſts from Ekatarinenburg; and, after having taken up ſeveral rivers, as, the Siſert, the Sinava, the Tſetſha, and the Miæs, falls into the Tobol in 57 degrees north latitude.—The Tobol has moſtly low ſhores; and in the ſpring ſeaſon frequently ſheds its waters far around.

3. The YENISSEY, which the Tartars and Mongoles who inhabit the ſuperior regions of it, above the Tunguſka, call Kem, and the Oſtiaks, Gub or Khèſes, which ſignifies the Great river, is at firſt compoſed of two rivers, the Kamſara and the Veikem, originating in the chineſe Soongoria (or Bukharia) and form a conjunction in 51 degrees 30 minutes north latitude and 111 of longitude. About the mouth of the Bom-Kemtſhyug it enters on ruſſian ground, and hence firſt takes the name of Yeniſſey. After various windings it now tends northward; and in 70 degrees north latitude and 103° 30′ longitude, forms a bay containing ſeveral iſlands; and at laſt, in 3 degrees 30 min. of length, falls into the Frozen ocean. In autumn, when its water is at the loweſt, its breadth, e. gr. at the town of Yeniſſeiſk,

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is about 570 fathom, whereas in the ſpring it is 795 fathom and upwards. The coaſts of the Frozen ocean, between the mouths of the Yeniſſey and the Oby, are called the Yuratzkoi ſhore. The more conſiderable ſtreams taken up by the Yeniſſey are the following: on the right, the Uſs, the Tuban, the Kan, and the three Tunguſkis, that is, the upper, the middle or podkammenaia, and the lower Tunguſka. On the left: the Abakan, the Yelovi, and the Turukhan. The Yeniſſey, in its ſuperior regions, flows over a very ſtony bed; and its ſhores, particularly the eaſtern, are moſtly beſet with lofty mountains and rocks. It has in general a very rapid courſe, though near its mouth it flows ſo gently that the current is hardly to be perceived at all. In the neighbourhood of Turukanſk and elſewhere it forms ſome conſiderable iſlands; and between the cities of Yeniſſeiſk and Kraſnoyarſk, ſeveral cataracts are to be ſeen. The Yeniſſey is navigable from its mouth as far as Abakan, and yields great quantities of the beſt fiſh. Of all the rivers taken up by the Yeniſſey,

The TUNGUSKIS are the moſt conſiderable. The upper Tunguſka ariſes out of the Baikal, and bears the name of Angara till its union with the Ilim. Beſides that, it takes up ſeveral other rivers, as, the Koda, the Tſhadovetch, the Iriki, the Kamenka, the Olenka, and the Tatarſkaia, all on the right: to the left the Oka, and the Tſhuna or Uda.

This Tunguſka has moſtly a ſtony bed, ſtrewed with rocks; with ſeveral cataracts, five of which are very conſiderable. Though navigable the whole ſummer through, it muſt yet be confeſſed, that this navigation is toilſome and difficult. — The middle Tunguſka takes its riſe in the government of Irkutſk, among the Baikal-mountains, not far from the origin of the Lena; and, after a courſe of about eight hundred verſts, and after having, on the right, taken up the Tſhiucha and the Tſhorna, falls into the Yeniſſey in 62 degrees north latitude. — The lower Tunguſka takes its ſource, indeed, in the ſame diſtrict, but bends its courſe northward; and after having taken up on the left, the rivers Niepa, Svetlaia, with many others; and on the right, the Roſmaknika, the Turiga and the Gorela, and run a courſe of about fifteen hundred verſts, ſtrikes into the Yeniſſey, not far from Turukanſk. Near the Turukanſkoi-Troitzkoi-monaſtir, are ſeveral dangerous whirlpools in it.

4. The KHATANGA. It ariſes out of a lake in the government of Tobolſk, in about 68 degrees north latitude; and 110 longitude; and in 120 longitude ruſhes into a large bay of the Frozen ocean, called Khatanſkaia guba. This river ſhapes it courſe for the moſt part through a low and very marſhy country. The moſt conſiderable rivers taken up by the Khatanga, are the Kheta and the Potigan.

5. The

5. The LENA. This is the greateſt river of eaſtern Siberia. It takes its origin on the north-weſtern ſide of the Baikal from a moraſs, runs at firſt weſtwards, then along to the diſtrict of Yakutſk eaſtwards, and laſtly towards the north, where after having divided itſelf into five great branches at its mouth, and thereby formed four conſiderable iſlands, it flows into the Frozen ocean. Its courſe is computed to be five thouſand verſts. Its ſource is in 52 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, its mouth in 73 degrees latitude and the eaſtern arm in 153, and the weſtern in 143 degrees of longitude. The Lena has in general a very gentle current. The bottom is moſtly ſandy, and the ſhore only in the upper regions beſet with hills and cliffs. It takes in a multitude of ſmaller rivers; the moſt conſiderable of which are to the left: the Manſurka, the Ilga, the Kuta, the Inæ, the Viluy, and the Muna: to the right, the Kireng, the Vitim, the Patoma, the Olekma, and the Aldan, into which again ſeveral brooks tranſmit their waters. But of all theſe the largeſt are the Vitim, the Olekma, the Viluy, and the Aldan. Out of the Lena travellers paſs into the Aldan, from that into the Maia, and from the Maia into the Yudoma, from which they have but a ſhort route to make by land to Okhotſk.

6. The YANA. It takes its origin out of a little lake, in about 64 degrees north latitude, directs its courſe, with ſome ſmall turns, towards the north, and previous to its diſcharging itſelf into the

Frozen ocean, forms five conſiderable arms, which iſſue in a capacious bay. No large river, but a great many ſmall ſtreams flow into the Yana.

7. The INDIGHIRKA ariſes in nearly the ſame latitude as the Yana, in the Stanovoi-Krebet, is reinforced by the Amekon, and a multitude of ſmaller rivers; and falls, in four great arms, into the Frozen ocean.

8. The KOLYMA, or KOVYMA, ariſes alſo in the Stanovoi-Krebet, almoſt over againſt Okhotſk; is much invigorated by the waters of numerous rivers, particularly the Omolon, forms a multitude of iſlands, and by means of four broad arms flows into the Frozen ocean.

Rivers that flow into the Eaſtern or Pacific ocean.

The ANADYR. This ariſes in the country of the Tchuktchi, out of a lake among the frontier mountains which are a continuation of Stanovoi-Krebet, here called Yablonoi-Krebet; and is therefore to be diſtinguiſhed from the nertſhinſkoi chain of mountains which alſo bears the name of Yablonoi-Krebet. The former has its appellation from the brook Yablona, which is the firſt conſiderable ſtream that runs into the Anadyr, on the right. Indeed it admits a great many other ſtreams on either ſide; but they are none of them very large. The bed of the Anadyr is in general ſandy, and its current is by no means rapid; its channel is very broad, and contains a good number of iſles, but throughout of

ſo little depth, that it can ſcarcely be croſſed in any part with the common ferry-boats of that country, called ſhitiki, which have no iron in their conſtruction, being only ſewed together, and drawing no more than two foot water. Only at the going off of the ice is the ſtream of any tolerable depth, from the mouth of the Kraſnaia to the place of its exit. From the ſource of the Anadyr to the brook Yablona, not a wood is to be ſeen, but pure barren mountains; below the Yablona are ſome ſtripes of meadow-land and ſome poplar trees; and on the mountains to the left, for at leaſt a hundred verſts above Anadyrſkoi-oſtrog, are thin woods of larch trees and dwarfiſh ſiberian cedars *. The whole of the northern region as far as the Anadyr, is in general deſtitute of ſtandard trees, and has ſcarcely any pieces fit for paſture; whereas ſouth of the river, at no great diſtance, eſpecially about the head of the main, the Penſhina and the Aklan, are tall timber foreſts in abundance. From the Anadyr quite to the Kolyma and the Frozen ocean, and throughout the whole country of the Tchuktchi, no more foreſt has been diſcovered; nay, in this laſt country, the meadow-ſhrubs ſcarcely ſhoot above a ſpan high; as in the whole tract along the northern coaſt of Siberia. But ſo much the more frequent are the flats, overgrown with yellow and white moſs, on which innumerable herds of wild rein-deer find paſture.

* Slanetz.

The KAMTSHATKA, on the peninſula of that name. It riſes in the ſouthern half of it, takes its courſe northwards, but turns weſtward, and falls below Niſhnei-Kamtſhatſkoi, into the ocean.

The AMOOR. It is formed of the two rivers, the Argoon and the Shilka, and firſt takes this name on their conjunction, and therefore firſt on the chineſe territory. The Shilka obtains its ſource in the high mountains, runs with them through the nertſhinſkoi diſtrict, and on the left takes up the Ingoda, with ſeveral other rivulets. The Argoon ariſes out of a lake juſt upon the frontiers that part Ruſſia from China, and forms the border all the way to its exit in the Shilka.

By the treaty of 1727 the Amoor belongs entirely to China; otherwiſe, the ſhip-building on the ſea of Okhotſk would be greatly facilitated to the Ruſſians, as much of the materials might then be brought by water which now come by land at a great expence.

Rivers that fall into the Caſpian.

The YEMBA or EMBA. It takes its riſe in the ſouthernmoſt part of the Ural-mountains, and conſtitutes the border between the uſimſkoi government and the country of the Kirghiſtzi, though the forts are much more to the weſt, namely on the river Ural. The Yemba takes up only one river of any note, the Sagiſs, has a ſtrong current, but is at the ſame time very ſhallow. It is the moſt eaſtward of all the rivers that fall into the Caſpian.

The

The URAL (formerly the YAIK) has its ſource in the weſtern ſides of the Ural-mountains, breaking out of them near the fort of Orſk, for a long tract ſtrikes its courſe weſtward, but from thence runs directly ſouth, and, at about 47 degrees north latitude, and 70 degrees longitude, falls into the Caſpian. It is a large river of a rapid current, and pure water, known to the antients under the name of RHYMNUS. Its courſe is computed at three thouſand verſts. It has formed from times immemorial the limits between the Kirghiſtzi and the Baſhkirtzi; and ſtill there are upon it thirty forts and ſeveral forepoſts, againſt the former. The moſt conſiderable rivers taken up by the Ural, are, to the left, the Or and the Ilek; and to the right, the Kiſil, and the Sakmara. Its banks, in the upper regions, are ridged with ſteep and lofty rocks: but lower down it flows through a tolerably dry and very ſaline ſteppe. It is peculiarly abundant in fiſh.

The VOLGA, one of the moſt famous rivers of Europe. By the writers of antiquity it is ſometimes named RHA, and ſometimes ARAXIS, by the Tartars Idel, Adal, or Edel, (denoting plenty,) and by the Mordvines is ſtill called Rhau. It takes its ſource in the government of Tver, in the Valday frontier mountains, from ſeveral lakes, flows thence through that and the governments of Yaroſlaf, Koſtroma, Niſhney-Novgorod, Kazan, Simbirſk, Saratof, and Caucaſus, and falls near Aſtrakhan into the Caſpian, after having parted into almoſt ſeventy arms, and

thereby formed a multitude of iſlands. It is reckoned to travel in its courſe above four thouſand verſts. It is well known to be an old project of uniting the Volga with the Don, in order to be able, by means of this water-communication, to ſail from the Baltic and the Caſpian into the Euxine. Seleucus Nicanor, after him Selim II. and laſtly Peter the great, attempted the execution of it, and, in all appearance were prevented from ſucceeding, certainly not by the impracticability of the matter, but by other circumſtances. It is thought that this junction by means of a canal in the diſtrict of Tzaritzin, where the Don runs at the diſtance of only fifty verſts from the Volga, would be more eaſily effected than by the propoſed Kamiſhenka. — On the ſhores of the Volga are a number of very reſpectable cities and towns, as, Tver, Uglitſh, Romanof, Yaroſlaf, Koſtroma, Balochna, Niſhney-Novgorod, Kuſmodemianſk, Tſhebakſar, Kazan, Simbirſk, Siſran, Saratof, Tzaritzin, and Aſtrakhan. It rolls its waters through many fertile regions, and in its inferior courſe is accompanied by beautiful foreſts of oak. In the ſpring it violently overflows, and is then navigable where at other times it is not. However, the chief navigation of it begins already at Tver. The Volga poſſeſſes this material advantage, that it has no cataracts, nor any otherwiſe dangerous places; but it is continually growing ſhallower from time to time, ſo as to give grounds for apprehenſion that it may one day be no longer navi-

navigable for veſſels of any tolerable ſize. At the commencement of the eighteenth century, the ſiberian ſalt-ſhips might ſtill be loaded with 130,000 or 140,000 poods of that article, and ſo be brought to Niſhney-Novgorod: at preſent they can take in no more than from 70,009 to 90,009 popd. In fiſh it is extremely plentiful, eſpecially in ſterlet, ſturgeon, biela reba, &c. — The Volga, in its extenſive courſe takes in a great number of rivers and brooks; the principal of which are:

1. The KAMMA. It is the largeſt of all the rivers that unite their ſtreams with the Volga, and at its mouth is to the full as large as it. The Kamma riſes in the government of Perme, from the weſtern projections of the Ural-chain, nearly in the ſame region with it, waters a ſmall part of the government of Viatka, flows through a large tract of the government of Perme, forms the border between the governments of Viatka and Ufa; and, at Laiſheva, ſixty verſts below Kazan, falls into the Volga. In its courſe it runs over a ſpace of a thouſand verſts. By the Tartars it is called Tſholman-Idel. For the tranſport of ſalt and iron from Siberia, it is one of the moſt important rivers of the empire. This is chiefly effected by the Tchuſſovaiya and the Belaiya, two rivers of conſiderable magnitude, flowing into it on the left. Beſide theſe, the Kamma takes up a great number of other rivers, ſuch as, on the left, the Kolva, the Yaiva, the Koſva, and the Ik; on the right, the Obva,

Obva, the Okhan, and the Umyak. The Kamma, above the mouth of the Belaiya (which is of a whitiſh water,) has a blackiſh wholeſome water. It is moſtly attended by a ridge of mountains, conſiſting of ſand, gypſum, and marl, with foreſts of firs and oaks. It is tolerably well ſtored with fiſh; and they are reckoned better taſted than thoſe of the Volga.

2. The OKKA. This ariſes in the government of Orel, irrigating that, and the governments of Kaluga, Tula, Moſco, Rezan, Tambof, Vladimir, and Niſhney-Novgorod, then falls, at the city of the laſt mentioned name, into the Volga. It is a very conſiderable river, navigable to its upper regions, takes up a multitude of ſmaller ſtreams, and thus effects an excellent communication between moſt of the inland governments of the empire. It receives, on its left, the Ugra, the Moſkva, and the Kliaſma; and on its right, the Upa, the Oſetr, and the Mokſha.

The TEREK. It originates in the caucaſian mountains, runs at firſt towards the weſt and ſouth, but turns afterwards entirely to the eaſt; and, in about 44 degrees north latitude, and 65 longitude, falls into the Caſpian. Together with a great number of little mountain-brooks, it takes up, among others, the Bakſan, the Malka, and the Soonſha. — Its ſource lies properly in the ſnow-mountains of Caucaſus, on the higheſt partition-ridges of the frontiers of Georgia. Its courſe is rapid;

rapid; and, in the months of July and Auguſt, when the melted ſnows ruſh down in torrents from the mountains into the plain beneath, ſwells to the height of eight or ten feet above its uſual level in autumn, winter, and ſpring. It then overflows its banks in many places, and lays the adjacent country under water; making itſelf in different parts new beds, and choaking up the old with ſand. In its inferior courſe, as far as Kitzliar, it is almoſt entirely unaccompanied by woods; farther up, to Starogladka, by a few; and thence upwards, its banks are richly garniſhed with foreſts, particularly of oaks, wild-fruit trees, and a variety of others. It does not freeze over every year, though in winter it is full of driving ice. In this ſeaſon its water is tolerably clear, which, at other times, above Kitzliar, is turbid with earthy particles; but, when taken up, it ſoon grows clear, and is then bright, well-taſted, and of good quality. Below Kitzliar, the river has a far leſs fall, and divides into ſeveral arms, in which the parted ſtream ſo gently flows, that it has time to depoſe its earthy particles, whereby theſe arms are alternately filling up; ſo that now one, and then another, repreſents the main river. In the lower regions, on the ſhores of the Terek, are ſeen vineyards, mulberry, and other fruit-trees, to which ſucceed ſalt-lakes, and ſprings of the ſame nature. Its bed is moſtly of ſand and clay. In fiſh, the Terek, as well as all its collateral rivers, is poor.

Yet

Yet there are caught in it ſturgeon *, beluga †, ſevruga ‡, ſalmon in plenty, fat-fiſh §, carp, barbel ‖, ſhad, pike, ſudak ♂, pearch θ, leſchtſc ξ, hfiſh-otters, beavers, tortoiſes, &c.

Rivers that fall into the Euxine.

The KUBAN, or the HYPANIS of the antients. It riſes in the caucaſian mountains, and is formed by the confluence of a number of ſmall rivers. With the river Tumeſek it makes ſeveral iſlands between the Palus Mæotis and the Euxine, of which one of the fineſt is the iſle of Taman; a principal arm of it falls northward into the former, and the other ſouthward into the Euxine. The river in general, and the firſt arm in particular, has a rapid courſe and clear water. But that arm which falls into the Euxine, flows in a very gentle current, has a troubled water, and forms at its mouth a pretty ſpacious bay, which however is ſo ſhallow that it can never ſerve as a haven. On the other hand the iſle of Taman has an excellent haven at Phanagoria. The Kuban has neither rocks nor water-falls, and therefore is well adapted to navigation with veſſels that do not draw much water. It admits to the right, the rivers Barakla and

* Acipenſer ſturio. † Acipenſer huſo. ‡ Acipenſer ſtellatus, PALL. § Cyprinus chalcoides. ‖ Cyprinus barbus. ♂ Lucio perca. θ Perca fluviatilis. ξ Cyprinus barba.

Barſukta;

Barſukta; and to the left, the Yaſſik, the Yaſſi, the Urp, the Sagraſſa, the Laba, the Karabokan, and ſeveral other ſmall rivers that flow into it from the mountains. In the mountainous part of the country watered by it, its banks are very ſteep; but in the lower regions they are flat, where the country is one continued ſteppe, almoſt entirely deſtitute of wood, but in other reſpects fertile enough. The iſle of Taman particularly poſſeſſes an excellent, and in ſome diſtricts an ever-verdant ſoil. The mountains in the ſuperior regions of the Kuban are thickly ſtrewn with foreſts. In its neighbourhood alſo, namely at Atſhuel, is a fine lake of ſalt water.

The DON, or, as it was called by the antients, the TANAIS, is the ſecond chief river which falls into the Palus Mæotis, and by it into the Euxine. It originates in the government of Rezan, from the Ivanofſkoe lake, and, after a courſe of about a thouſand verſts, falls into the ſea near Azof. It flows for the moſt part over a flat country, covered with flowers and foreſts. The foreſts, conſiſting moſtly of pines and oaks, accompany it quite to the circaſſian mountains. Its bed has neither rocks nor large ſtones, but is formed generally of ſand, marl, and lime; for which reaſon it flows very gently, and here and there has broad ſand-banks and ſmall iſlands. It is liable to violent inundations. Its water is turbid and whitiſh; and is ſaid to be not wholeſome to every conſtitution. It indeed abounds

abounds in fiſh; yet in this regard is not to be compared with the Volga. Below Voronetch the Don commonly freezes about November; and February has ſcarce begun before the ice goes off. This river is, therefore, from its magnitude and other qualities, of the utmoſt importance to the trade of theſe parts; it flows through the governments of Rezan, Tambof, Voronetz, and Ekatarineſlaf. Among the principal rivers taken up by the Don, are: the Voronetz, the Khoper, the Donetz, and the Manith.

1. Of theſe the DONETZ is the moſt conſiderable. It takes its riſe in the government of Kurſk, flowing as far as Caucaſus through a fertile and very populous country. It is navigable from the Iſum, and has nearly the ſame water and the ſame kinds of fiſh with the Don.

2. The VORONETZ has its origin in the government of Tambof; in a fruitful region furniſhed with beautiful foreſts of oak. Its banks are well inhabited, and copiouſly ſtrewn with towns and villages. By means of a canal that unites two petty rivers that run into the Voronetz and the Okka, one may ſail in ſmall barks from the Voronetz into the Okka, ſo that the Volga is thus in a manner connected with the Don; but, not to mention that this paſſage can only be effected in little barks, the vaſt circuitous way that muſt be taken up the Volga, in order to come into the Don, defeats the benefit that might otherwiſe be derived from it. — Not far below

below the city of Voronetch, we ſee the dock-yards at Tavrof on the Don eſtabliſhed by Peter I. in the year 1708, where large ſhips are conſtructed for the navigation of the Euxine.

The DNIEPR, or the BORYSTHENES of the ancient geographers, ariſes in the government of Smolenſk, not far from the diſtrict where the Düna and the Volga take their ſource. This large river directs its courſe ſouthwards to the Euxine; and, after having formed the Liman, a marſhy lake about ſixty verſts in length and ten in breadth, falls into the Euxine near Otchakof and Kinburn. Beſides traverſing the government of Smolenſk, it runs through the provinces of Mohilef, Tchernigof, Kief, and Ekatarinoſlaf, and forms the boundary between three of them and Poland. The Dniepr purſues a courſe of about fifteen hundred verſts, chiefly through the moſt fertile provinces and the moſt genial climates of the empire. At Smolenſk it uſually freezes in November, at Krementſhuk in December, and at Kief in January; and in the laſt-mentioned region, breaks up about the beginning of March. It is broader, deeper, and more rapid than the Don; has a number of iſlands, a bed partly ſandy and ſtony, and partly of marl; and, though a calcareous, yet a ſalubrious water. At Kief there is a large bridge of boats thrown over it, of 3,583 feet two inches of France, or about ſeven hundred ruſſian ſajenes or fathoms in length, and in many places has very commodious ferries. To the

the above-mentioned city, from Smolenſk, it is navigable in perfect ſafety; but below it, at a diſtance of ſixty verſts from the influx of the Sura, down to Alexandroffkaia, are thirteen cataracts in regular ſucceſſion, which are-cauſed by a multitude of banks and blocks of granite projecting into the river; nevertheleſs, at very high water, it may be navigated with empty barks, above it, the cargoes whereof muſt be ſhipped again in other veſſels at ſeventy verſts ſtill lower down. From theſe waterfalls to its mouth, the diſtance is about four hundred verſts, where it may be paſſed in all parts without the ſmalleſt danger. Its mouth is in many places deep enough, and might be made commodious for ſhipping. As far as Kief it is accompanied by thick foreſts; but below that city, its ſhores are moſtly bare, or, eſpecially in the upper regions, beſet with hills and mountains. Laſtly, the Dniepr yields plenty of fiſh, particularly from its mouth, to Kherſon, and farther up. The Soſh, the Deſna, the Soola, the Pfiol, the Vorſkla, the Sammara, the Inguletz, and ſeveral other waters, flow into it.

The Bogue. It riſes in Poland, parting that kingdom and a portion of European Turkey from Ruſſia; and, at Otchakof, falls into the Euxine. Among others, it takes up the Ingul, the Sinucha, and the Guiloi; and thus becomes a very conſiderable river.

Mineral

Mineral waters.

It is indeed ſurpriſing that in this vaſt empire ſo proportionably few mineral ſprings ſhould have been hitherto found, if we except the ſalt-ſources and lakes, which do not belong to this place. In mineral ſubſtances there is certainly no deficiency in many parts; it muſt therefore ariſe from ſome other cauſe. Perhaps the great diſtance from the ſea. Hence it may likewiſe be, that in the inland parts of the country every trace of the old volcanos, that doubtleſs exiſted here ſome thouſand years ago, is effaced.—The mineral waters at preſent known, and occaſionally applied to medicinal uſe, are:

1. *Sulphureous* * *and liver-of-ſulphur* † *waters.*

(Hotſprings.)

Theſe are the moſt numerous. Some are of luke-warm, others warm, and a few of hot water, viz.

1. A fetid ſulphureous ſpring is in Sarepta on the Volga, in the bed of the mill-pond, and another near Saratof.

2. Another is near Selo Klintſchy in the government of Perme.

* Sulphur-ſprings, which uſually afford hepatic air or ſulphurated hydrogene gas.

† Liver-of-ſulphur ſprings; i. e. ſprings which are impregnated with ſulphurate: they alſo afford hepatic air or ſulphurated hydrogene gas.

3. The like fetid water and mud are contained in many of the bitter lakes and other waters in Siberia; for inſtance, the lakes Karaulnoë and Gorkoë on the lines of Iſchim, the Puſtoy on the Kurtamyſh, and the ſtream Oſcha on the Baraba, which emits a great quantity of inflammable air.

4. The baths on the Terek in the caucaſean government. Theſe on being diſcovered to Peter the great, were examined by his order in 1717 by Dr. Schober, but have been thoroughly explored only of late by the academician Guldenſtædt. The principal of theſe is the St. Peter's bath, formerly called the Baragunſchian; and next to this are the St. Catharine's, the St. Paul's, and the St. Mary's baths. The mountains whence they iſſue conſiſt of ſandſtone and whetſtone. St. Peter's bath is formed by three ſeveral ſources pretty diſtant from each other. Their proper heat is 71 degrees of Reaumur's thermometer, let the temperature of the atmoſphere be as it may. The warmth of the other ſources riſes from 41 to 60 degrees. All theſe waters, even the cold ones, are clear as cryſtal. In taſte and ſmell they reſemble liver of ſulphur, which however they entirely loſe in twenty-four hours. M. Falk thinks their component parts, in a pound, conſiſt of 12 ounces and about 3 grains of Glauber's ſalt, three grains of calcareous earth, very little ſulphur diſſolved in mineral alkali, no iron, little æther, and a trace of alum: according to Gul-

Guldenſtædt, however, this water contains nothing more than ſulphur and alkaline ſalt, which, mixed, produce liver of ſulphur, no iron, but a conſiderable proportion of calcareous earth.—Beſides theſe, there are other warm ſprings in theſe parts, as: the warm baths on the river Koyſſa, near Kitzliar, called St. Andrew's baths, and likewiſe proceed from ſandſtone; and the warm ſprings on the Podkumka, thirty verſts from the fort of St. George, iſſuing from mount Maſchuka. Their component parts are the ſame with the foregoing, only their warmth is perceptibly leſs. In regard to the medicinal virtues of theſe baths, it is aſſerted that their internal uſe is very beneficial, in the ſwelled neck or other ſcrofulous indurations of that kind, ſtricture of the breaſt, phthiſis, ariſing from glandular obſtructions, in obſtructions of the liver, in the jaundice, in hypochondriacal affections, hæmorrhoids proceeding from obſtructions in the bowels; in fine, to perſons who labour under a ſhortneſs of breath from indurations or calculous ſubſtances or mucus in the lungs. The internal and external uſe of them is ſaid to be good in gravelly complaints attended with pains in the back and loins, and diſorders ariſing from a checked perſpiration; in ſhort, in all arthritic and rheumatic diſeaſes. The inward, but ſtill more the outward uſe of theſe baths are reckoned ſerviceable in diſtempers cauſed by an obſtinate acrimony of the blood, in ſcorbutic and cutaneous eruptions.

Bathing in them is preſcribed againſt ſtiffneſs of the joints, and contractions of the limbs, &c. The inward and outward uſe of them is alſo profitable in tonic and convulſive ſpaſms, as alſo in rickety complaints. This water cooled is found greatly to promote a diſcharge of urine. Taken daily with milk it is extremely beneficial in conſumptions.—Guldenſtædt, in the years 1771 and 1773 cured forty patients by means of theſe baths, and ſince that time the uſe of them is become pretty general in the country round.—In the baſins of theſe warm waters there is a depoſition of tophus and a ſmall portion of native ſulphur. In the vicinity of them are naphtha ſources *.

5. The baths on the Barguſin, in the province of Nertſchinſk in the government of Irkutſk. They were found in a waſte region at the diſtance of eighty verſts from any habitations. But M. Grund, ſurgeon to a regiment quartered in thoſe parts, having ſucceſſively preſcribed the uſe of theſe baths to ſeveral patients; M. von Klitſchka, the governor of Irkutſk, in 1779 cauſed ſome buildings to be erected there. They have proved of great advantage to perſons afflicted with rheumatiſm, ſcurvy, phthiſis, and other complaints of a like nature. The water is drank either pure, on

* For a more circumſtantial account of theſe waters ſee Falk, Beytrage, book ii. p. 13. & ſqq. and Guldenſtædt in hiſt. cal. 1778, and Peterſb. Journ. book ii. p. 134.

account of its nauſeous taſte, reſembling that of rotten eggs, mixed with milk. It promotes perſpiration, does not quench the thirſt, and may be drank in large portions. When boiled it is of a very agreeable taſte, and is particularly good with tea *.

6. The warm ſprings in what was formerly the Soongarèy. Some of theſe are near the ruſſian borders. There are ſeveral of them, as, 1. on the Araſchan, which river proceeds from the mountains, and falls into the lake Alakta; the ſpring guſhes from ſandſtone. 2. On the mountain ſtream Yabliſchu, which flows into the Emil. 3. On the rivulet Lepſchy gliding from the mountains of Muſart, into the Tzuy; and, 4. high up the Irtyſh, which was frequently viſited by the late khan Kontaiſch †.

7. The warm ſprings in the ruſſian part of the Altay-mountains. There are but very few of them: the moſt conſiderable are about the head of the Abakha. They have not, however, yet been examined.

8. The warm ſprings in the Sayane-mountains. I have heard of ſome in thoſe parts; but know nothing more of them.

9. The warm ſprings in the Baikal-mountains. They are for the moſt part highly ſulphureous, and

* St Peterſb. Journal, 1779, book ii. p. 376.

† See Falk, Beytrage, book ii. p. 16.

the water of ſome of them is very hot, which in cutaneous diſorders is uſed with good effect *.

10. The warm ſprings at Kamtſhatka, and on the kurilly and aleutan iſlands, which have been ſpoken of before.

11. The ſulphureous ſprings on the Sok and on the Volga; for which the reader is referred back to the deſcription of the Ural-mountains.

2. *Vitriolic waters.*

(Sour-ſprings.)

Strong martial waters are not uncommon; but, of proper ſour waters which are applied to medicinal purpoſes, only the following are known:

1. St. Peter's well in the diſtrict of Olonetz, in the village of Buigova, where it trickles in a valley. It was fitted up in 1716 by Peter the great, as well for his own uſe as that of the public, for which purpoſe ſeveral buildings are conſtructed about it, together with a church. The water has a vitriolic, inky taſte, and a ſulphureous ſmell. The well is four arſhines in depth, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ in diameter, ſunk in a hollow full of roots of trees and weeds, (partly in their primitive ſtate, partly impregnated with ferruginous matter, or entirely converted into iron-ſtone,) interſperſed with ſtones, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ arſhines in a clayey kind of ſtone with much ſulphur pyrites. In the

* Georgi's travels, tom. i. p. 79. 93, &c.

deeper

deeper parts of this vale is a ſtratum of vitriolic earth, from which vitriol is here prepared *. This well has for many years paſt grown almoſt entirely out of uſe.

2. The well near Tzaritzin; at Sarepta in the government of Saratof. This is at preſent the moſt famous in the ruſſian empire, and the only one that may be ſaid to be frequented. It was diſcovered in 1775, by Dr. Vier †, paſtor of the community of moravian brethren at Sarepta. In a circuit of two hundred verſts, no leſs than thirty-two mineral ſprings have ſince been found. The largeſt and moſt copious lies nine verſts to the north-weſt of Sarepta, eighteen verſts from the town of Tzaritzin, and three verſts from the bank of the Volga, in 48 degrees 43 minutes north latitude. The country round is very pleaſant, abounding in odoriferous herbs, in pure and pellucid ſources, in all kinds of fiſh, cattle, game, poultry, &c. Dr. Vier cauſed this ſpring to be incloſed, and at firſt prepared ſpring-ſalts and magneſia from the running water. The component parts are, in twelve ounces: thirty-two grains of bitter ſalt, 2½ grains of ſelenite, the ſame quantity of calcareous earth, and a ſtrong tincture of iron, with but little æther. The main

* A like mineral water, where the vitriol ſpontaneouſly ariſing may be collected in poods at a time, lies at the diſtance of ſeventeen verſts from Zurukhaitu in Daouria. Pallas, travels, iii. 425.

† As is generally ſuppoſed; but theſe ſprings had been before obſerved by Meſſrs. Falk and Pallas.

ſpring is incloſed ſeven feet high and four over. The water is commonly from three to four degrees of Reaumur warmer than common water. The taſte is not unpleaſant, clean, and rather ſaline. Near the well the air is ſomewhat cooler. The following properties are aſcribed to theſe ſprings: they promote the circulation of the juices, preſerve from putrefaction, brace and cheer, cleanſe the fluids from acrimony; and are good for wounds. The water is alſo an excellent laxative, promotes perſpiration, purifies the blood, abates inflammations of it, cures cramps and obſtinate colds. It has been computed that every hour thirty-ſix thouſand pounds of water flow from this ſpring, containing a hundred and eighty pounds of mineral particles; in the whole year therefore 315,360,000 pounds of water and 1,576,800 pounds of mineral parts. In the year 1780, the perſons that uſed theſe waters, amounted to a hundred and twenty-two, and the number of the frequenters has been annually much increaſing ever ſince *.

3. A very good ſour-ſpring is alſo at the St. Peter's bath on the Terek. It ariſes quite cloſe to the hot-ſpring, and contains principally Glauber's ſalts, with a ſlight ferruginous tincture, and a ſmack of a volatile poignant acid †.

* For farther particulars, ſee St. Peterſb. Journ. parts ii. vi. and New Pet. Journ. 1782, book ii. p. 139.

† Falk, Beytr. book ii. ſect. 12.

4. The

4. The ſprings near Ekatarinenburg in the government of Perme. They are juſt two verſts from the town, in the iron works of Verchney-Iſetſk. Their component parts are a ſolution of iron by the atmoſpheric acid and ſome ſelenite; the taſte is very inky, and the effect detergent and decompoſing. The well has been lately made, and the waters are coming into general uſe.

5. A ſimilar ſource is likewiſe at the iron works of Kuſchvinſk in the ſame government. It has the ſame qualities with the laſt mentioned, and is uſed in the hoſpital of the place with benefit.

6. A ſour-ſpring near Pogromna in Daouria, which greatly reſembles Seltzer water*.

7. Another of theſe ſour-ſprings is alſo in the iron-works at Kutomarſk in Daouria †.

3. *Bituminous waters.*

(Naphtha ſources.)

1. On the ſtream Igar, fifteen verſts from Sergieſſk on the Samara, and others forty verſts from it. They yield conſiderable quantities of naphtha.

2. On the Terek, in the mountains about the warm ſprings at Baragun, near Deulet-Gueray, &c. and the ſources of Tſchetſchengiſk are particularly prolific. There ariſes out of holes in the argillaceous and ſandſtone ſoil a watery vapour ſmelling of

* Pallas, travels, part iii. p. 249.

† Georgi, part i. p. 344.

naphtha,

naphtha, which collected in pitchers is ſo richly impregnated with naphtha, but ſtill more with maltha, that the inhabitants take both and uſe the latter as tar. The earth hereabouts is all impregnated and black with maltha.

3. On the ſhore of the Volga near Tetyuſchy and near Samarſkoy, thick naphtha oozes out of the ſtony ſtratum.

4. On the mountain Irnek, on the kirghiſian and khivinſchian frontiers, on the road to Ornburg black naphtha flows. A lake on the Sagris which falls into the Emba, is covered for a finger thick with naphtha.

5. On the Sok *.

6. On the Caſpian; principally near Baku.

7. In Taurida. In the diſtrict of Perekop and on the iſle of Taman, twenty verſts ſouth of the town of that name; alſo at Yenikaly and in the Kuban.

8. On the Baikal; in various places.

4. *Incruſtaceous waters.*

1. Which depoſe tophus calcareus, or foreign ſubſtances incruſted with calcareous particles, and alſo form ſtalactites. This kind of water is in great plenty, of which the tophus ſtrata on the Volga, the Kamma, the Terek, the ſtreams of the upper Sura, &c. and the many ſtalactites in the caverns of the

* For which ſee before in the deſcription of the Ural-mountains.

Ural,

Ural, the Altay, and other mountains are ſo many proofs; alſo a petrifying ſpring to the right of the Volga near Duvobka, which in thirty years ſtrongly impregnated a piece of timber with calcareous particles *.

2. Such as incruſtate ſubſtances laid in them with iron-ochre, or convert them entirely into iron-ore. Neither are theſe uncommon, for inſtance, the above-mentioned four ſprings at Olonetz, a ſpring near Verchneturinſkoy-ſavod, one near Suſunſkoy-ſavod, and one in the region of the Schlangenberg †.

Canals.

The conſtruction of canals was a principal object with Peter the great: ſome were even begun by his orders, but were afterwards left unfiniſhed from the difficulties that aroſe in the progreſs of the work. Four particularly derive their origin from him, viz. 1. that to Cronſtadt, which, after being carried upwards of two verſts, was then abandoned. 2. The Ladoga canal, which in length is a hundred and four verſts, and ſeventy fathom in breadth. 3. A canal, along which, by means of ſome rivers, a communication is formed between Moſco and the Don. 4. That at Viſhnei-Volotſhok, by means of which a paſſage is had from the Caſpian into the Volga; and thence, in conjunction with ſome rivers and lakes, into the Neva, and ſo into the Baltic.

* Falk, ubi ſupra, p. 5.

† Hermann's Statiſtiſche ſchilderung von Ruſsland, &c.

The

The late empreſs, from the very beginning of her reign, beſtowed a peculiar attention to this important object, and actually cauſed three canals to be dug, beſides thoſe of Cronſtadt and St. Peterſburg; in order particularly to render far more commodious the paſſage from the Caſpian into the Baltic than it is by the canals of Viſhnei-Volotſhok; and then, by means of ſome rivers, to connect the Caſpian with the White-ſea. Several other plans have been propoſed; and, among them, one to unite the Dnieſtr, the Dniepr, and the Volga.

Many other canals might be undertaken, for connecting rivers of various magnitudes together, which would greatly facilitate the tranſport of products from one place to another, eſpecially to the ſea-ports. Only in ſome regions the expence would be too great; or the diſadvantage, at leaſt to them, would be beyond all proportion greater than the benefit to accrue from them. However, many canals might be cut highly favourable to trade where it has hitherto met with numberleſs impediments.

For inſtance, not more than two voloks * are to be met with between the Don and the Volga. One is at Tzaritzin, where Peter the great had formed the deſign of making a canal of communication between theſe two rivers. The other volok is beyond Tſcherdine, between the Kolva and the Petſhora.

* A volok, in the Ruſſian language, ſignifies a ſmall tract of land between any two rivers that run nearly in a parallel direction.

Almoſt

Almoſt all the rivers of Siberia diſembogue into the Frozen-ocean. Not one of all that take their riſe in Siberia, runs to the countries of the Mongoles, Bukharians, Kalmuks, and Tartars; whereas, many of thoſe which riſe in the Mongolèy, and the country of the Kalmuks, flow northward through Siberia. They are ſo commodious for navigation, that a veſſel might go from them through Peterſburg to Selenghinſk, were it not only for two voloks: one between the river Tſchuſſovaia and the Taghil, and the other between the Ket and the Yeniſſey; the latter of about ninety verſts, and the former not ſo wide.

VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

BOOK II.

HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE NATIONS OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

In addition to the advantages derived from the natural ſituation of Ruſſia, Nature has been no leſs bountiful to her in the inexhauſtible ſources of her products of every ſpecies. As a ſyſtematical ſurvey of them would lead us beyond the bounds of our plan; and, even with the moſt ſtudied brevity, would only be a dry nomenclature, we ſhall here content ourſelves with remarking in general: that the ruſſian empire produces all the neceſſaries of life, and many of them in ſuch ſuperfluity, that, with a proportionate population and induſtry, ſhe might be not only completely independent in regard to her primary requiſites, but alſo entertain the probable hope of keeping

keeping the generality of trading nations in a conſtant dependence on her. The profit, employment, and manufacture of theſe natural ſtores by mechanical arts and traffic will be expreſsly noticed in the progreſs of this work; we therefore paſs by theſe objects now, in order to give a completer knowledge of them, by firſt briefly delineating the political diſtribution of the empire.

The whole ruſſian territory at preſent conſiſts of FIFTY alike-organized provinces, which are called governments or viceroyalties. As in this diſtribution leſs regard was had to the ſuperficial contents than to the population, ſo the areal dimenſions of the governments are generally various; while their population, with a few exceptions, is pretty equal. Each government is again divided into ſeveral circles; ſome of the largeſt have alſo a farther diſtribution into diſtricts. In each circle is a circle-town, where the circle-adminiſtration has its ſeat, and one of theſe circle-towns is at the ſame time the government-town, in which the governor-general and the principal officers reſide, and by which the whole government is uſually denominated.

Beſides theſe fifty governments, belonging to the ruſſian empire, are two more countries, having a military-civil conſtitution, namely, the country of the Donſkoy-Kozaks, and the country of the Euxine-Kozaks. Two-and-fifty provinces therefore, properly ſpeaking, compoſe the ruſſian empire; the georgian ſtates Karduelia and Kakhetty, ſeveral petty

petty diſtricts of people, in the parts of Caucaſus, with the country of the Kirghis-Kozaks, are to be reckoned among the countries under the protection and in the dependence of Ruſſia.

Great part of the country now called Ruſſia was, in periods of remote antiquity, inhabited towards the north-eaſt and north, by a people of Finniſh origin, perhaps deſcended from the antient Scythians. Towards the north-weſt, were tribes conſiſting of a motley race of Sauromates and grecian coloniſts; and from them are deſcended the modern Lithuanians, Lettovians, Livonians, and Courlanders; as were alſo the antient Pruſſians. The whole ſouthern part of Ruſſia, even to the Krimea, was for ſome time inhabited by Goths; and, between the Volga, the Don, and Mount Caucaſus, dwelled a nation deſcended from the Medes, called Sauromates, that is, the northern Medes. In proceſs of time, when nations of barbarians iſſued, one after the other, in ſwarms, from the eaſt, and ſome of the different tribes of Goths had, ſince the middle of the third century, penetrated into the weſtern regions of the Roman empire; part of the Sauromates found themſelves under the neceſſity of retiring farther toward the north and the weſt. Even at that early period they had the ſame political conſtitution we ſtill ſee prevalent among them. Each individual of the nation was either maſter or ſlave. Thoſe who were of diſtinction among them, called themſelves tribes, ſlaf, and ſlavnè, or noblemen; whence again,

all ſuch as either were renowned for great atchievements, or only capable of performing them, were afterwards in like manner ſtyled ſlavnè. Under this denomination it was that they became known to the Europeans, who were not till very lately acquainted with the particular tribes of thoſe nations. Theſe tribes had their appellation frequently from ſome river, town, or diſtrict. So the Polabes were named after the Laba, or Elbe; *po*, in the ſlavonian and ruſſian tongues, ſignifying near. The Pomeranians dwelt po moru, or near the ſea. The Havellanians near the river Havel; the Maroaro, or Moravians, or Marahani, on the banks of the river Morava. The Varnabi had once their reſidence near the Varnof, and the Polotzani on the ſhores of the Polota. In the mountains * lived the Khrobates; the Tollenſians were named after the river Tollenſea, in Pomerania citerior, which empties itſelf into the Peene, near Demmin. From Sidin, or Sedin, the Stettin of the moderns, one tribe was named Sidinians; another from Britzen † Britzanians; from Kuſſin, a town ſubſiſting in thoſe early times, the Kiſſinians took their name, the traces of whom are ſtill to be found in a village near Roſtock, called Keſſen, or Kiſſin: and laſtly the Lutitzians were named after Loitz, on the river Peine. But there are alſo ſome names of theſe tribes which are original; for example, the Sorbs, or Serbs, the

* Khrebet. † Treunbritzen.

Tſchechs

Tſchechs or Bohemians, the Lachs, Lechs, or Polachs, the Poles; and from the more modern Varagian Roſſi, the Ruſſians, about the year 862, received their name. The ſtorm, which, in the train of Attila, from the year 435 to 456, ſpread terror and devaſtation over the earth, was but of ſhort duration. In the mean time came the turkiſh tribes, which till then had dwelt in great Turkey *, and Turkiſtan (where is ſtill ſubſiſting, on the banks of the Taras, the town of Turkiſtan) and eſtabliſhed new empires. The empire of the Vlagi, or Volochi, or Vologars, or Volgars, or Bulgarians, is in like manner called Great Bulgaria. It is ſituated beyond the Volga, on the banks of the Kamma, of the Bielaia and the Samara: The empire of Borkah or Ardu, of the aſconian Turks, extended on this ſide of the Volga from Uvieck, near Saratof, quite to mount Caucaſus. One part of theſe were called Kumani or Komani, from the river Kuma, and their town was named Kumager †.

* i. e. Bukharia the leſs.

† For more on this ſubject, ſee the Hiſtory of Diſcoveries made in the North, tranſlated from the German of Dr. John Reinhold Forſter.

SECTION I.

Slavonians.

No other country throughout the globe contains ſuch a mixture and diverſity of inhabitants. Ruſſians and Tartars, Germans and Mongoles, Finns and Tonguſes, live here at immenſe diſtances, and in the moſt different climates, as fellow-citizens of one ſtate, amalgamated by their political conſtitution, but by bodily frame, language, religion, manners, and mode of life, diverſified to the moſt extraordinary contraſts. It is true, there are ſome european countries in which we find more than one nation living under the ſame civil conſtitution, or where we ſtill perceive evident traces of the former difference between the primitive and modern inhabitants; but in almoſt all theſe countries the dominant nation has in a manner ſwallowed up the conquered people; and the individuality of the latter has, in the courſe of ſome centuries, by inſenſible degrees, been almoſt entirely loſt. Whereas in Ruſſia dwell not only ſome, but a whole multitude of diſtinct nations; each of them having its own language, though in ſome caſes debaſed and corrupted, yet generally ſufficient for generic claſſification; each retaining its religion and manners, though political regulations and a more extenſive commerce produce in ſome a greater uniformity; the generality of the main

main ſtems, in ſhort, bearing in their bodily ſtructure, and in the features of their faces, the diſtinctive impreſſion of their deſcent, which neither time nor commixture with other nations have been able entirely to efface.

This extraordinary variety of inhabitants, while it gives great attraction to the ſtudy of ruſſian ſtatiſtics, adds likewiſe to its difficulties. Inſtructive and intereſting as it is to the reflecting obſerver, to trace the human being through every degree of civilization, in the ſeveral claſſes of manners, and in all the forms of civil ſociety; yet toilſome and dry is the occupation which muſt neceſſarily precede that ſatisfaction: to inveſtigate the origin of theſe ſtems in their firſt ſhoots, and to diſcriminate their gradual progreſs to larger ſocieties and ſtates from the chaos of dark and fabulous times. The united efforts of the numerous inquiſitive hiſtorians, both foreign and domeſtic, who have employed themſelves on theſe ſubjects, have hitherto been able to caſt but a feeble light on the origin of the greater part of the nations of the ruſſian empire, and the reſearches of many of them have been loſt in traditions, the romantic obſcurity whereof has left us no hope of arriving at the truth. Without pretending to ſurmount theſe difficulties, on which hiſtorical ſagacity has hitherto been exerted without any remarkable benefit to the knowledge of nations, and the diſcuſſion of which would lead us too far beyond the

bounds we have marked out to our plan, we will merely attempt to arrange the particular reſults of the moſt competent inquirers into a conſiſtent line which may guide us through the labyrinth of the intricate reports of the middle ages, and convey us into the more luminous regions of authentic hiſtory. — We will trace the exiſtence of each nation which we find within the limits of the ruſſian territory to its firſt hiſtorical appearance; and theſe efforts will enable us to ſketch out a genealogical ſyſtem of the nations that inhabit that empire. Where hiſtory leaves us, we will ſeek in the analogy of languages means for the claſſification of collateral tribes, hoping thus to deduce as complete and regular a view as poſſible of all the nations of the ruſſian north, according to their real or probable derivation, their moſt remarkable events and cataſtrophes, their population and the place of their preſent abode*.

Beſides

* For the moſt eſtabliſhed and the moſt memorable facts from the antient hiſtory of the ruſſian nations, it is proper here at ſetting out to note the authorities which are chiefly uſed. Theſe are, beſides ſeveral ſcattered eſſays in larger works or periodical publications, principally the following: Plan of a topographical and phyſical deſcription of the ruſſian empire, undertaken by the imperial academy of ſciences; in the St. Peterſburg Journal, vol. vi. p. 323. Georgi's deſcription of all the nations of the ruſſian empire. Schlœtzer's general hiſtory of the north, or the 31ſt vol. of the german univerſal hiſtory. Pieces relating to ruſſian hiſtory, by her majeſty the empreſs Catharine II. Schlœtzer's

Beſides the Slavonians, to whom the predominant nation belongs, there are in the ruſſian empire three main national ſtems, whoſe original identity is hiſtorically placed beyond all doubt, and among whom ſeveral other tribes are to be counted as relative or collateral branches, namely, Finns, Mongoles, and Tartars. To theſe may be added the Tunguſes; who, though not a primitive ſtock, yet are the only one of their race in Ruſſia. A ſixth claſs is formed by thoſe nations, with whoſe language and hiſtory we are ſtill too much unacquainted for being able with any degree of certainty to aſſign them a place in the national ſyſtem at large; and this claſſification is terminated by the diſperſed multitudes of european and aſiatic nations who have ſettled here and there in particular provinces; either as conquerors with

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Schlœtzer's diſſertations on the ruſſian annals (1). Diſſertation ſur les anciens Ruſſes, par Strube de Pyrmont. Kratkoie vedeniye v bytopiſſaniye vſeroſſ. imp (2). Thunmann's unterſuchungen ueber die alte geſchichte einiger nordiſchen vœlker. Yannaus pragmatiſche geſchichte von Liefland und Ehſtland. Muller's ſammlung ruſſiſcher geſchichte. Gatterer's verſuch einer allgemeinen Weltgeſchichte. Thunmann's unterſuchungen ueber die geſchichte der œſtlichen europæiſchen vœlker. Peyſſonel's verfaſſung des handels auf dem ſchwartzen meer. Pallas ſammlung hiſtoriſcher nachrichten ueber die mongoliſchen vœlkerſchaften. Fiſcher's ſibiriſche geſchichte. The travels of the St. Peterſburg-academicians, &c.

(1) Tranſlated in the Selections from foreign journals, &c. printed for Debrett, 1797, vol. ii. p. 293 & ſeq.

(2) By profeſſor Beſack.

violence, or voluntarily and on invitation as coloniſts: but their number is too inconſiderable for having any pretenſions to be treated of under a ſeparate head.

1. The SLAVONIAN ſtock is one of the moſt remarkable and moſt widely extended in the world. Next to the Arabians, who formerly prevailed from Malacca to Liſbon, there is no people throughout the globe that has diffuſed its language, its dominion and its colonies to ſo ſurpriſing an extent. From the ſhores of the Adriatic northwards as far as the coaſt of the Frozen-ocean, and from the ſhores of the Baltic through the whole length of Europe and Aſia, as far as America and to the neighbourhood of Japan, we everywhere meet with ſlavonian nations, either dominant or dominated. — The origin of this numerous and powerful race is loſt in the night of antiquity; it was perhaps compriſed by the Greeks and Romans under the comprehenſive and indefinite denomination of Scythians and Sarmates*.

* In the year 495, the Heruli, being routed by the Longobards, marched through the territories of the Sclavi; and this is the firſt event in which this nation is mentioned in hiſtory under that name. Indeed the name Sclavi appears in the armenian hiſtorian Moſes of Chorena, who is commonly thought to have lived in the middle of the fifth century, and in the epitomiſer of Strabo; probably alſo in Ptolemy: but the paſſages of theſe hiſtorians that relate to our ſubject deſerve a more accurate inveſtigation. — Jornandes and Procopius, two contemporary hiſtorians of the ſixth century, are the firſt by whom they are diſtinctly named. *Schlœtzer.*

Poland,

Poland, Pruſſia, Lithuania, and the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia were probably the antient ſeat of the Slavi. Hence they ſpread themſelves to Dacia, to Germany, and to the countries lying beyond the Danube; theſe regions were the cradle of thoſe countleſs ſwarms which over-ran the half of Europe and Aſia, or reduced themſelves to ſubjection.

Towards the middle of the fourth century all the ſlavonian races were ſubdued by Ermanarik, and incorporated with the Oſtrogoths into one government. Soon afterwards both the dominant Oſtrogoths and the ſervile Slavi were rendered ſubject to the victorious Huns. A century had ſcarcely elapſed when theſe diſturbers of the world were either exterminated on the one hand by the gothic Gepidi, or on the other driven to the farther ſide of the Danube by the finniſh Ungres and Bulgarians. The Slavi began to ſhew themſelves in Dacia, preſſed between the Ungres and the Gepidi, and took up a part of the northern ſhore of the Danube. Here we find them entering as a peculiar people, among the barbarians who menaced from the north the downfall of the declining roman empire *; hence they plundered the roman pro-

* In order not to leave the curioſity of ſome readers entirely ungratified, we will here obſerve, that the Slavi on the Danube, during a courſe of ſeveral centuries played no inſignificant part among the barbarians, who, by their predatory incurſions accelerated the downfall of the grecian empire. Their firſt attacks were made in the time of Juſtinian I. about the year 527, but

provinces; hence they ruſhed like a torrent on the country of the Gepidi, who were almoſt entirely extirpated by the Longobards and Avari. The Avari arrogated to themſelves a ſort of ſovereignty over the various ſlavonian races, and occaſionally extorted from them a tribute; but this people too was at length ſwallowed up by the Bulgarians, who now, by theſe acceſſions of people, extended themſelves over all Dacia. Forced by their oppreſſions, the greater part of the dacian Slavi abandoned their dwellings, and retreated (probably about the middle of the ſeventh century) from the Danube to the north. Some tribes withdrew to Poland, others to Ruſſia, and a part of them remained on the Danube.

Thus were theſe countries peopled by ſlavonian colonies; who, ever ſpreading farther and wider, and founding governments in every place, occaſioned the moſt ſignal revolutions in the north of Europe. All the branches of this grand ſtock, who have

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but they returned, not long afterwards, to their ſeats on the northern ſide of the Danube, and, not till towards the year 602, began to ſettle on the ſouthern ſide of that river. — A complete hiſtory of the danubian Slavi, from the year 495 to 1222, is given by Mr. Stritter of Moſco, from the byzantine writers, in his celebrated work: Memoriæ populorum, olim ad Danubium, pontum euxinum, paludem mæotidem, Caucaſum, mare caſpium, et inde magis ad ſeptentriones incolentium, e ſcriptoribus Hiſtoriæ Byzantinæ erutæ & digeſtæ. Whoever finds theſe particulars too dry for his peruſal, may read an entertaining account of the Slavonians of thoſe times and their intercourſe with the ſtate of Rome, in the immortal work of Mr. Gibbon.

formed

formed peculiar ſtates, may be ranged by their preſent condition in ſeven claſſes, that is, into ruſſian, poliſh, bohemian, german, illyrian, hungarian, and turkiſh Slavonians. Three of theſe branches we find in the ſpacious territory of the modern ruſſian empire: the Ruſſians, the Poles, and the Servians.

1. The aborigenes of Ruſſia were of two races: FINNS and SLAVONIANS. The former poſſeſſed the regions of the Volga and the Duna; the latter dwelt about the Dniepr and the upper Don. The main ſeats of the Slavonians were properly in Lithuania and Poland; only one arm of that body extended over the Dniepr. When the danubian Slavi, being cruelly oppreſſed by the Bulgarians, fell back to the north, they ſpread themſelves farther on the Dniepr, where they conſtructed Kief. One colony of theſe Slavonians penetrated up the Volkhof and laid the foundations of Novgorod. After a dark period of more than a hundred years, this latter race again appear amidſt the finniſh nations, and at this point of time it was that the ruſſian ſtate received its origin from the Scandinavians or Northmanni.

Shortly after the ſettlement of both theſe Slavonian races on the Volkhof and the Dniepr two hoſtile nations aroſe and became their oppreſſors: the Khazares from the Euxine, and the Varagians,

Varin-

Varingians or Northmanni * from the Baltic. Under various turns of fortune, of which but little is known with certainty, both races obtained their

* As the Varagians had ſo conſiderable a ſhare in founding the ruſſian ſtate, it will perhaps be not unacceptable to find here a compendious view of their pedigree and fortunes. The Norrmanni, who in ruſſia were called Varagians or Varingians, were a northern people of gothic deſcent, a warlike multitude, compoſed of Danes, Swedes, Norwegians, who, perpetually in queſt of adventures, eſtabliſhed governments in the weſtern and eaſtern parts of Europe, and produced revolutions, eſpecially in the ſouth, the conſequences whereof extended throughout our quarter of the globe. The firſt trace of their maritime expeditions is diſcoverable about the year 516; though it is probable that they carried on their piracies much earlier, and were generally comprehended under the name of Franks, who already appear under the emperor Probus as enterpriſing mariners. In the year 795, they are firſt perceived in Ireland. About the year 813, they began their incurſions by the Elbe, into Frieſland and Flanders; in proceſs of time they proceeded to Aquitaine and along the Seine; about the year 840, they ravaged France, and in 857, made the conqueſt of Luna, and afterwards of Piſa in Italy. In the year 862, Rurik founded the ruſſian monarchy; about the ſame time too, a Norrmann of a ſimilar name, Rorick, became famous in the hiſtory of Holland. Soon after this, Oſkold and Dir founded another ſovereignty at Kief. In the tenth century Ragnvald reigned in Polotſk, from whoſe daughter Rogned the ruſſian annals derive the grand-dukes of Lithuania. About the year 1000, they take Apulia from the Greeks, and Sicily from the Arabians. They gave Normandy its name, after Rollo had wreſted that country from the kings of France. Even the conqueſt of England by the Danes, in ſome degree, forms a part of their hiſtory. *Allgemeine nord. geſch.* p. 220.

inde-

independence till the ninth century; when the Varagians, conquered from the Ruſſians, a kindred north-gothic people *, the modern diſtricts of Reval, St. Peterſburg, and Archangel, and ſubjected the Slavonians, Krivitſches, Tſchudes, Veſſenians, and Meræenes † to a tribute. The Ruſſians retired to Fin-

* The earlieſt mention of this name is in the Bertinian Annals, at the year 839, therefore prior to Rurik's reception in Novgorod. *Diſſert. ſur les anciens Ruſſes*, p. 1.—However hiſtorians may have hitherto differed in opinion concerning the origin of the Ruſſi, Ruotzi, or Ruſſes, yet at preſent the generality and the moſt authentic are agreed in this, that they belong to the varagian race, and therefore were originally Norrmanns or Scandinavians.—Thunmann affirms them to be Swedes, deſcended from Scandinavians, and ſpeaking the Scandinavian tongue. *Unterſuch. ueber die geſch. der æſtl. europ. völk.* p. 374.

The ſituation of the antient Ryſſaland or Ruſsland, may be aſcertained by the towns which are mentioned by the chronographers. The Ruſſians, for example, poſſeſſed Rotala, which lies in the preſent government of Reval; Aldenborg (now old-Ladoga) which lies in the government of St. Peterſburg; Alaborg, which is in the government of Olonetz; and Holmgard, (now Kholmogor,) which is in the government of Archangel. *Bitopiſſaniye*, &c. p. 2.

† Theſe tribes were partly Slavonians and partly Finns: To the former belong, 1. the proper Slavi or Slovænians, who dwelt on the lake Ilmen, in the preſent government of Novgorod. Of all the ſlavonian races which ſettled in the preſent territory of Ruſſia, this was the only one that retained its primitive denomination; the reſt took their appellative from the reſidencies they choſe. Among thoſe who ſettled about the Dniepr, and whom we comprehend under the general denomination of Kievian

Finland and Karelia; but the Slavonians, in conjunction with the reſt of the aforenamed nations, drove out the Varagians, and formed themſelves at the lake Ilmen, near Novgorod, into a federative democratical republic. As the defects of this conſtitution ſoon gave occaſion to inteſtine diſturbances, the five united nations came to the reſolution of

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Kievian Slavi, ſome were called Polænians (from field, plain; in ruſs pole), others Goranians (from Gora, a mountain), Drevlanians (from derevo, a tree, a foreſt), Severians (from ſever, the north,); Polotſchanians, after the river Polota; Sulanians, after the river Sula; Bugſchanians, after the river Bugue, &c. — Under the name Slavonians or Slovænians, in Ruſſia were only known thoſe who lived about Novgorod. 2. The Krivitſches, a ſlavonian ſtock, at firſt dwelling between the rivers Pripet and Dvina, and who afterwards ſpread themſelves farther up the rivers Volga, Dvina, Oka, and Dniepr, and thence obtained their name (from Krivi the upper part). After theſe old ſlavonian people the Lettiſh to this day denominate Ruſſia. The region inhabited by the Krivitſches (now the governments of Polotzk, Smolenſk, and Minſk) fell more recently under the dominion of Lithuanians, and was named thenceforward Lithuanian-Ruſſia, in the ruſſian language Liteſſka. By the poliſh partitions of 1773 and 1793, the ruſſian empire got back theſe long-withholden provinces. — To the finniſh nations belong: 1. the Tſchudes, as the Ruſſians are wont to call them, and under which the Finns and Eſthonians are eſpecially implied, who had their ſeats in ſome diſtricts of the preſent governments of Pſcove and Reval. 2. The Veſſenians, on the Bielo-Oſero, in the diſtrict of Novgorod. 3. The Meres or Meræns, in the parts where are now the governments of Vladimir, Yaroſlaf, and Koſtroma. Theſe are probably the preſent Mordvines.

calling

calling in the Ruſſians to reſtore tranquillity to their country, and to give them protection; in order to which they offered voluntarily to reſign the ſovereignty to them. The ruſſian prince Rurik, with his brothers Sineus and Truvor, accepted the invitation. Rurik collected all his people together, came in the year 862 to the mouth of the Volkhof, and took upon him the government of the new-erected ſtate, which from the very firſt compriſed ſix ſeveral tribes, ſlavonian, finniſh, and varagian, extending over the regions of the preſent governments of Riga, Reval, Polotſk, Pſcove, Vyborg, St. Peterſburg, Novgorod, Smolenſk, Olonetz, Archangel, Vladimir, Yaroſlaf, Koſtroma, and Vologda.

Though the Varagians compoſed the predominant, and under Rurik the moſt conſequential part of the people, (which is principally proved from this circumſtance, that in the hiſtory of his time only varagian names are mentioned,) yet Slavonians and Ruſſians were ſoon blended into one nation; and though the name of the latter was transferred to the whole nation, yet the ſlavonian language and manners retained the ſuperiority, as that people were conſidered as the predominant part both in numbers and in civilization.

Rurik, the proper founder of the ſlavonian ſtate, immediately took up his reſidence at Staraya Ladoga, and ſtyled himſelf grand-prince, thereby to

denote his ſupremacy over the ſubordinate princes. By a kind of patrimonial conſtitution the grand-princes had the right of granting to their ſons or younger brothers diſtinct principalities. This right Rurik, as the eldeſt, exerciſed with his two brothers. Sineus received Bielo-Oſero, and Truvor Iſborſk, for their reſidencies, as chief towns of dependent countries. Both died childleſs, one ſhortly after the other: Rurik reunited their territories with his own; and, in the fourth year of his reign, removed his reſidence from Old Ladoga to Novgorod, which from that time forward became the capital of the ruſſian monarchy.

Scarcely had RURIK elevated himſelf ſole ruler of the novgorodian ſtate, when the Slavonians dwelling on the Dniepr, being oppreſſed by the Khazares, applied to Rurik, requeſting him to give them a prince of his race to rule over them. Rurik ſent them his ſtepſon Oſkold, who ſubdued the Khazares, and founded at Kief the ſecond ſlavo-ruſſian dominion, dependent on the novgorodian empire.

The progreſs of the ruſſian monarchy is ſo fertile in great events, and runs ſo deeply into the hiſtory of the neighbouring nations, that the relation of them can be no object of this hiſtorical ſketch. We will therefore purſue the chief nation alone in the moſt memorable periods of its hiſtory, in order to enable us to ſee at one view the gradual courſe of the

the formation and enlargement of the preſent extenſive and powerful empire of Ruſſia.

OLEG, the immediate ſucceſſor of Rurik, who reigned as guardian of his nephew Igor, united Kief, which would now no longer acknowledge the ſupremacy of the novgorodian grand-princes, completely with the Ruſſian territory, and elevated this ſecond ſlavonian family-ſeat, to be his reſidence and the capital of the country. — Under theſe and the following reigns the power of the empire was rapidly increaſing. Ruſſian armies appeared before the gates of Conſtantinople; a multitude of nations were rendered tributary; the Ruſſians carried on a regular commerce to the coaſts of the Euxine; they built cities, embelliſhed and gave laws to ſuch as were already in being. — On the death of VLADIMIR the great, in 1015, who embraced the chriſtian religion, and introduced it into Ruſſia, this haſty progreſs of the nation was checked by the partition of the territory among his twelve ſons.

This pernicious policy, which was even continued by his ſucceſſors *, had for its conſequences devaſtation and war. Ruſſians took up arms againſt Ruſſians,

* The grand-princes, as patrimonial lords of the country, granted to their ſons, younger brethren and other relations, diſtinct principalities; and this not only in their life-time, but even by teſtamentary bequeſts. The ſeveral princes were bound to do homage to the grand prince, as their father or elder brother, and

Ruſſians, brethren againſt brethren; and amidſt theſe bloody contentions, which were ſtill the more deſtructive as either party ſtrove to ſtrengthen itſelf by calling in the aid of foreigners, aroſe a *third* powerful ſtate: White Ruſſia or Vladimir.

Ruſſia had now three independent grand principalities within its borders, beſides ſeveral ſmaller ſtates ariſen by partitioned lines. Vladimir was the moſt

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were his principal vaſſals. The grand-prince had the right to reſume the principalities which he had beſtowed, and to tranſlate theſe his vaſſals, eſpecially when they were his ſons, from one principality to another. Upon the deceaſe of the grand-prince, from whom a diſtinct prince had received his principality, it became hereditary, and was regarded as the patrimony of the prince and his family; by which means every ſeparate prince acquired nearly as much power in his territory, as the grand-prince had in the grand-principality. — After the death of Yury or George I. in 1157, the princes of Vladimir on the Kliaſma, emancipated themſelves entirely from the ſupremacy of the grand-princes of Kief, and thereupon aſſumed the title of grand-princes. This example was ſoon followed by the princes of Vladimir on the Bogue, Galitſch on the Dnieſtr, Smolenſk, and Tſchernigof; and from the time of Yaroſlaf II. who died in 1246, the ſame was done by all the ſeparate princes who had received the charter of their principalities from the tartarian khans. — Simeon the proud, however, who died in 1353, made his brothers not only vaſſals, but ſubjects: Dmitri Donſkoi publicly required all the ruſſian princes to pay him unconditional obedience; his ſon Vaſſilly forced the princes of Suſdal and Niſhney-Novgorod to unlimited ſubmiſſion, and Ivan I. at length reſtored the complete ſovereignty and indiviſibility of the empire.

powerful of them, and its ſovereign was conſidered, during the following period of the tartarian oppreſſion, as the proper and only grand-prince of Ruſſia. At firſt Suſdal was the capital of this ſtate, afterwards Vladimir, and at length that honour fell to the lot of Moſco, which city George I. had founded in the year 1147. — Vladimir, as well as Kief and Novgorod, which latter grand principality had adopted a ſort of monarchic-republican form of government, maintained an uncertain and often controverted ſupremacy over the ſmaller principalities, of which ſeveral from time to time had ſprung up, and which, unmindful of their common lineage from the houſe of Rurik, lived in a ſtate of perpetual warfare.

This ſtate of the nation muſt have greatly facilitated the means of its ſubjugation to any foreign enemy; how much more to a wild and warlike nation, which, by the magnitude and rapidity of its conqueſts, was already become formidable to all Aſia. Mongoles and Tartars, who, under their khan Tſchinghis at the beginning of the thirteenth century, had united themſelves into a powerful ſtate, and had brought into ſubjection the greater part of Aſia, now, in 1237, under the conduct of his deſcendant Batu, khan of Kaptſchak, fell upon the ſouthern Ruſſia, where, after repeated predatory incurſions, they founded a formal ſovereignty. Kief fell firſt (1240) under their power; the grand-prince of Vladimir did homage to the khan of Kaptſchak,

ſchak, and the leſſer princes voluntarily followed his example. The Tartars now ſlackened their conqueſts, in order to turn them to greater advantage: they numbered the people in the principalities, impoſed on them a heavy tribute, and thus riveted the oppreſſive yoke of foreign ſovereignty which the Ruſſians bore for upwards of two hundred years.

During this melancholy period, the grand-prince of Novgorod, ALEXANDER, honoured with the ſurname of NEFSKY, made himſelf famous by the victory which he obtained over the Swedes on the banks of the Neva, and another in Livonia (1250) over the knights of the Teutonic order. On the other hand Kief was loſt to the ruſſian territory (1320) with the greater part of ſouthern Ruſſia, and fell to Gedimin, the heroic grand-prince of Lithuania, who raviſhed this beautiful ſpoil from the Tartars. Smolenſk, Polotſk, Tur, and Vitebſk, had already fallen under that ſupremacy. Vladimir, the capital whereof in 1328 was transferred to Moſco, continued, notwithſtanding its being a fief to the Tartars, to be the mightieſt of all the principalities; and the free ſtate of Novgorod, which was ſecured by its diſtance from the oppreſſions of the Tartars, was growing rich amidſt the general calamity, by commerce, and even ſpread its conqueſts northwards over ſeveral neighbouring regions.

The partition of the Ruſſian empire and the general confederation of the mongole-tartar nations were the cauſes that co-operated to the ſubjugation of

of Ruſſia; an oppoſite mode of conduct liberated the Ruſſians, and caſt the yoke which they had ſo long borne back upon the necks of their former conquerors. Oppreſſion and deſpair at length combined the ruſſian princes in one common ſentiment: ſeveral of the tartar hordes had made themſelves independent, and internal diſturbances and bloody conteſts completed the ruin of others.

Such was the ſituation of things, when IVAN VASSILLIEVITCH I. in 1462, aſcended the throne at Moſco. This grand-principality had, even under the preſſure of foreign ſupremacy, collected force for oppoſition. The principalities of Suſdal and Niſhney-Novgorod were already in union with it; the princes of Pſcove and Tver acknowledged it paramount, and the republic of Novgorod at leaſt did not refuſe its ſubmiſſion. Theſe means and the perſonal character of Ivan decided his brilliant lot; that of being the reſtorer of the independence of his country, and the founder of the new ruſſian monarchy.

Ivan had reigned fourteen years, when he refuſed obedience to the tartars, and juſtified this daring ſtep by victories which gained him the tartarian kingdom of Kazan, and made its ſovereign his tributary vaſſal. The republic of Novgorod, which ſtrove to maintain its independency under lithuanian protection, ſubmitted in 1477 to the force of his arms. A ſimilar fortune befel the principalities of Pſcove and Tver. Lithuania loſt a conſiderable part of its ter-

ritory. The princes of Severia voluntarily ſubmitted. The Teutonic order in Livonia alone withſtood the increaſing power of Ivan.

Under his ſucceſſor, indeed, the riſing monarchy loſt for a ſhort time the kingdom of Kazan, but in return Smolenſk was incorporated again into the ruſſian ſtate. — IVAN VASSILLIEVITCH II. at length burſt the laſt ſhackles of the mongole-tartarian ſovereignty. The entire conqueſt of the kingdom of Kazan was completed in ſeven years; the capital of it ſurrendering in 1552. Two years afterwards Aſtrakhan became a ruſſian province. Hence Ivan preſſed forward into Caucaſus and ſubdued the whole Kabardey. On the other hand his plans of conqueſt were fruſtrated in Livonia, which he was forced to relinquiſh after a conteſt of twenty years attended with numberleſs cruelties. The ottoman Turks, in conjunction with the Tartars of the Krim, fell upon Ruſſia and ravaged its capital; but theſe diſaſters were greatly overbalanced by the opening of a channel for maritime commerce by way of Archangel, and by the conqueſt of Siberia, which date their commencement from the reign of Ivan, and were ſlowly but firmly completed under his ſucceſſors.

By this conqueſt, for which Ruſſia is indebted to a bold and ſucceſsful robber, the monarchy extended its dominion over an immenſe tract of country, rich in the nobleſt productions of nature, and inhabited by a multitude of nations till then unknown. — Ivan's

Ivan's ſucceſſor, FEODOR, abandoned his claim to Eſthonia, and obtained in return from Sweden a ſecurity to his poſſeſſions of Ingria and Karelia.

By Feodor's death in 1598, the dynaſty of Rurik was extinct. During the interim till the election of a new tzar of the houſe of Romanof in 1613, the empire was a prey to confuſion and deſolation. The well-known events of the pretenders under the name of Demetrius had implicated the Poles and Swedes in the internal affairs of Ruſſia; and MIKHAILA ROMANOF could only by large ſacrifices purchaſe the repoſe of his empire. He was obliged to relinquiſh Ingria and Karelia to the Swedes, and Smolenſk, Severia, and Tſchernigof, to the Poles.

This was however the laſt misfortune that diminiſhed the power of the ruſſian empire. From that period to the preſent day, Ruſſia has not only been regaining its antient poſſeſſions, but ſo far extended and enlarged them, that the preſent circumference of the empire knows of no parallel in the hiſtory of the world.

ALEXEY, the ſucceſſor of Mikhaila, not only reconquered the countries relinquiſhed by his father to the Poles, but reduced alſo Kief and the Ukraine on the eaſtern ſide of the Dniepr, in 1655, to a reunion with the parent-ſtate of the ſlavo-ruſſian nation. — His ſon, the immortal PETER I. the creator of modern Ruſſia, acquired to his empire in 1721, by a twenty years war with Sweden, the pro-

provinces on the shores of the Baltic, which had been for a many centuries the source of bloody contentions among the northern powers: Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, and a part of Kexholm and Karelia, were annexed to the ruſſian ſceptre, and procured to the empire, beſides incalculable advantages to commerce, a firm and reſpectable footing among the chief european powers. — A ſecond acquiſition of the Perſian provinces of Dagheſtan, Shirvan, Ghilan, Mazanderan, and Aſtrabat, was, after thirteen years poſſeſſion, voluntarily abandoned.

CATHARINE II. brought aggrandizement to Ruſſia within and without by a reform of its government, and ſeveral ſucceſsful wars. She obtained from the porte, by the peace of Kutſhuk-Kainardgi in 1774 the poſſeſſion of the city of Azof, with the territory belonging to it; and for the ſecurity of the Ruſſian navigation on the Euxine, the forts of Kinburn, Kertſch, and Yenicaly in the peninſula of the Krimea. A few years later, (1783,) the whole province ſimply by a treaty became a ruſſian government; and in its preſent denomination the antient name of the Tauridan Cherſoneſe is reſtored. In virtue of the ſame convention Ruſſia enlarged her borders to the ſouth by the Kuban, where now the caucaſian mountains form the boundary of the ruſſian dominion. In a ſecond attempt to abate the preponderant power of Ruſſia, the porte once more ſubmitted, and was obliged to pay for the unfortunate termination of the quarrel

quarrel by the ſurrender of a conſiderable tract of country on the ſhores of the Euxine, between the Bogue and the Dnieſtr. — On the other ſide wretched Poland, by a ſurpriſing viciſſitude of fortune, paid dearly for the injuries which Ruſſia had formerly ſuſtained from this once powerful ſtate. In the famous partition which firſt reduced the national imbecility and political nullity of this republic to an almoſt incredible proof, Catharine obtained for her ſhare in 1773 the four lithuanian voivodeſhips of Smolenſk, Vitepſk, Mſtiſlaf, and poliſh Livonia, with a part of the voivodeſhips of Polotſk and Minſk. The late and ſudden attempts, through favour of temporary circumſtances, to withdraw from under the ruſſian influence, and to reſtore the ſufficiency of the nation by a new conſtitution, involved the exhauſted republic in an unproſperous war, which ended (1793) in the loſs of the fine and fertile provinces of the Leſſer Poland and Lithuania. The laſt and deſperate exertion of the Poles was at length attended by the total diſmemberment of the country; the capital of the kingdom fell into the hands of the Ruſſians; the political exiſtence of the republic was annihilated, and the laſt veſtiges of it were loſt (1796) in the confines of the bordering ſtates. — One conſequence of the annihilation of Poland was the acquiſition of the duchies of Courland and Semigallia, including the circle of Pilten, which on the diſſolution of their feudal connection with the republic, by a reſolution of the eſtates of the country,

country, ſubmitted themſelves unconditionally in 1795, to the ſceptre of the empreſs *.

While Catharine the ſecond was augmenting the power of her empire on one ſide by conqueſts and treaties, ſhe ſtrove on the other to promote the ſame object by the mild authority of her laws, and the methods of civilization. Compelled by the exigencies of his ſituation, the mightieſt of the princes of Caucaſus, the tzar of Kartuelia and Kakhetty put himſelf under the protection of the ruſſian empire, by acknowledging in 1783 the ſupremacy of its monarch. Catharine invited people from all countries to come and ſettle in her dominions, and thus eſtabliſhed numerous colonies. She reduced a multitude of tributary nations dwelling in the heart of Siberia to a complete ſubmiſſion to her laws. She ſet on foot and

* According to an authentic eſtimate, publiſhed in 1796, by Major Oppermann, the acquiſitions made during the reign of Catharine II. are thus given:

	Square verſts.	Inhabitants of both ſexes.
At the firſt partition of Poland in 1773	76,558	1,226,966
From the porte in the years 1774 and 1783	113,100	171,610
From the porte in the year 1791	23,053	42,708
At the ſecond partition of Poland, 1793	202,383	3,745,663
By the ſubjection of Courland	16,273	387,922
At the third partition of Poland, 1795	94,645	1,407,402
Total	526,012	6,982,271

encou-

encouraged ſeveral voyages of diſcovery, which obtained for the ruſſian empire a new ſovereignty in the eaſtern ocean, and on the weſtern coaſt of America.

We have hitherto followed the principal clue of the ruſſian empire, without concerning ourſelves with the particular ſtates into which Ruſſia, during the period of its partition, was divided. None of theſe diviſions left ſo many viſible traces in the nation and in the political conſtitution, after its reunion, as the defalcation of the grand-duchy of Kief. Their origin from two ſtems, diſtinct though belonging to one nation, already ſeparated the kievian from the novgorodian Slavi. Their deſtinies and their political condition have been ſince continually removing them farther aſunder; and when the ſtate of Kief, after a ſeparation of more than three centuries, diſſolved again into the ruſſian maſs, its inhabitants were ſtill a very different people from their primitive brethren, in language, manners, and conſtitution. This difference ſubſiſts at preſent, notwithſtanding the political incorporation; and the two nations are ſtill deſignated by different names: the deſcendants of the novgorodian colony being now called Great-Ruſſians, and the kievian Little-Ruſſians. The former, in the proper acceptation, compoſe the principal nation *, and chiefly dwell in the

* The Great-Ruſſians may be regarded as the main-nation: 1. becauſe the kievian ſtate became, ſoon after its origin, ſubject to the novgorodian; 2. becauſe the former, during the period of ſeparation,

the old ruſſian provinces, though they have ſpread through all the conquered countries. The home of the Little-Ruſſians is the Ukraine, or the preſent governments of Kief, Tſchernigof, Novgorod-Sivirſk, Kurſk, Orel, Tambof, &c. and they are alſo called Kozaks, though in modern times theſe only form a particular claſs of the nation, and their conſtitution is now almoſt entirely effaced. — As beſides the Little-Ruſſians, there are other branches of the Kozaks, and theſe tribes, notwithſtanding their manifeſt ruſſian origin, being very diſtinct from the proper Ruſſians by their mixture with other nations, and by their peculiar conſtitution, it is neceſſary to point out the eſſential particulars of their origin and circumſtances.

By Kozaks, in its largeſt ſenſe, is underſtood original ſeparate ruſſian ſtems, who ſettled in the ſouthern regions of modern Ruſſia, and formed for themſelves a military government. The name Kozak is probably tartarian, and ſignifies an armed warrior. It is likely that it may have paſſed from the Tartars to the Ruſſian Kozaks, when the latter, after the demolition of the tartarian ſovereignty,

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ration, was under a foreign ſovereignty, whereas the great-ruſſian ſtate in part preſerved its independency, and, under the ſupremacy of the Tartars, had an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of native princes: 3. becauſe Kief, on its re-union with the ruſſian body-corporate, ſubmitted to its ſovereignty: 4. becauſe the Great-Ruſſians are by far the moſt numerous, and their dialect is the prevailing language.

ſettled

ſettled in their ſeats and adopted a ſimiliar mode of life *.

The Kozaks are divided, as well by their origin as by their preſent conſtitution, into two main branches; the *Kozaks of Little-Ruſſia*, and the *Kozaks of the Don*. From the former are derived the ſlobode-regiments in the government of Kharkof, and the zaporogians; from the latter the volgaiſki, the

* The emperor Conſtantine Porphyrogenneta, ſo early as the ninth century, mentions a country of *Kaſachia*, between the Euxine and the Caſpian, at the foot of the caucaſian mountains; and, from the ruſſian year-books, we learn, that the ruſſian prince Mſtiſlaf at Tmutarakan, a ſon of the great Vladimir, in the year 1021 made war upon a nation call *Koſagi*. Both ſeem to be the ſame people, and of tartarian origin. They got their name probably from their mode of life, as the Kirghis-Kaiſaki bear the ſame appellation from their eaſy method of carrying on war. The ruſſian annals frequently mention the tartarian Kozaks, eſpecially under the reign of Ivan I. in whoſe time there were *Ordinſkoi* (from the great Orda or Horde, the chief ſeat of the Tartars on the Volga) and *Azofskoi* Kozaks. Theſe two branches are to be conſidered as the laſt remains of the tartarian ſovereignty in Ruſſia, and even theſe are either exterminated by the Ruſſians, or have themſelves diſperſed, and united with other tartarian nations. — In their ſtead aroſe the *Don-kozaks*, who, notwithſtanding this connection and the apparent analogy of their manner of life, political regimen, and features of face, are genuine Ruſſians, as their language and religion evince. Had they been converted to the latter, the ruſſian annaliſts, who carefully take notice of every converſion, would certainly not have paſſed it over in ſilence. *Sammlung ruſſ. geſch.* vol. iv. Compare with *Hupel's nord. miſcell.* part 24 and 25. *Annales de la Petite Ruſſie, par Scherer. Georgi's deſcription of all the nations of the ruſſian empire.*

gre-

grebenſki, the orenburgſki, the uralſki, the ſibirſki, and ſeveral other branches of Kozaks.

The grand-principality of Kief was, ſince Oleg transferred thither his ſeat from Novgorod, the capital of the ruſſian nation; and continued to be ſo till the year 1157, when the grand-prince Andrey Yuryevitch Bogolubſkoi choſe Vladimir for his reſidence. From that time forward, though Kief had its own princes, yet this continued no longer than till the year 1240, when the Tartars conquered Kief and deſolated the whole country. Eighty years the tartarian dominion laſted, during which this grand-principality retained its native princes, but they were under the arbitrary orders of the Tartars, and were obliged to divide their ſovereign-rights with the tartarian viceroys. From this ſupremacy, which left the country ſtill ſome ſemblance of an independent conſtitution, Kief fell in 1320, under the dominion of the lithuanian prince Gedemin, who defeated the laſt grand-prince Staniſlaf, placed a viceroy in his ſtead, and in his conduct towards this unhappy country, acted from no law but that of the conqueror.

At this æra we are probably to fix the origin of the MALO-RUSSIAN Kozaks, or Kozaks of Little-Ruſſia. The dread of a foreign ſovereignty which ſeemed to announce itſelf by unuſual ſeverity, may be reaſonably ſuppoſed to have given riſe to this military republic. A multitude of fugitives, who had abandoned their country, collected themſelves together

together in the lower regions of the Dniepr, where they ſoon began to form a petty ſtate. The perpetual incurſions and conteſts to which they were ſubject from their neighbours the Poles, the Lithuanians and Tartars, obliged them to adopt a military form of government. Their numbers were increaſing conſiderably, when Kief, for the ſecond time, in 1415, was ravaged by the Tartars; and, laſtly, on this grand principality being entirely with Lithuania incorporated into the poliſh ſtate, and the kings of Poland, and the inhabitants ſuffering ſtill greater hardſhips and oppreſſions than before, many of them again fled to the new colony, which had now aſſumed the name of Little-Ruſſia in order to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the great ruſſian empire. By inſenſible degrees they now ſpread as far as the Bogue and the Dnieſtr, and poſſeſſed the whole country included by theſe rivers and the Dniepr. Villages and towns ſprung up in which the Kozaks paſſed the winter with their families; all the effective men roaming about the ſteppes during the ſummer, and, like the knights of St. John, perpetually engaged in petty wars with the Turks and Tartars *. Theſe circumſtances rendered them a barrier to the kingdom of Poland againſt theſe enemies; the riſe and progreſs of the new free-ſtate was therefore not only not impeded on the part of Poland, but even foſtered and en-

* So early as towards the latter end of the ſixteenth century, the Kozaks ſubdued a part of the Krimea, captured Trebiſond, and made military campaigns to Conſtantinople.

couraged

couraged in various ways. King Sigiſmund made over in perpetuity to the Kozaks, in 1540, the countries lying above the cataracts of the Dniepr. Stephen Battori put them upon a regular military footing, gave them a hetman or ſupreme commander, and granted them likewiſe conſiderable diſtricts *. His ſucceſſors, however, departed from theſe prudent meaſures; they forbad the Kozaks to quarrel with the Turks, without conſidering that they thus deſtroyed the fundamental policy of this warlike ſtate; Poles forced themſelves into the country and took poſſeſſion of the principal offices; the greek clergy, in ſhort, were obliged to renounce the patriarch of Conſtantinople, and to acknowledge the ſpiritual ſupremacy of the pope.

Theſe and numberleſs other oppreſſions at length brought on a tedious war, proſecuted with various ſucceſs, and terminating on the part of the Kozaks with their throwing off the ſupremacy of Poland, and ſubmitting themſelves formally to the tzar of Ruſſia. This ſubmiſſion took place in the year

* The ſixth hetman, prince Bogdan Reſchinſky, had a grant of the town of Terechtemirof, and it from that time became the capital of the Kozaks, which had hitherto been Tſcherkaſſy. The Kozaks obtained permiſſion to inhabit the whole region from Kief to Terechtemirof, and on the eaſtern ſide of the Dniepr their former poſſeſſions were enlarged by a tract of country of a hundred and twenty miles in extent. Thus Stephen had the prudence by this piece of policy in ſome meaſure to ſubject the Kozaks to him. His ſucceſſors profited by this dependence, till at laſt the mutual relations of the two ſtates, which had ariſen from protection on one ſide and gratitude on the other, degenerated into oppreſſion and rebellion.

1654,

1654, under the hetman Bogdan Khmelnitzki, and this example was ſoon followed by all the towns and inhabitants on the eaſtern ſide of the Dniepr, with Kief. Thus at length was Little-Ruſſia and the antient main-ſeat of the ſlavo-ruſſian nation, after a ſeparation of three hundred and thirty-four years, again united with the main body of the ruſſian monarchy. The events of this country, from that period, fall in with the hiſtory of the ruſſian empire. The name Little-Ruſſia indeed ſtill ſubſiſts; but the form of its government, its kozak eſtabliſhment, and the nation itſelf, have undergone great alterations, which have only ſome veſtiges of its former difference.

During the war between the Kozaks and the Poles numerous bodies of fugitive Kozaks fled from the weſtern to the eaſtern ſide of the Dniepr into the ſouthern provinces of the ruſſian empire, where, preſerving their military conſtitution, they ſettled in an uninhabited but fertile region *. This is the origin of what are called the ſlobode Kozaks. The country in which theſe were eſtabliſhed had antiently belonged to the grand-principality of Kief, and, from the time of its being firſt over-run by the Tartars, had remained an unpeopled deſert; the new-comers who now returned to the deſolated inheritance of their fathers, were well-received by tzar Alexey Mikhailovitch; their numbers increaſed

* In the preſent government of Kharkof, and partly too in thoſe of Kurſk and Voronetch.

by the arrival of new ſettlers, and they conſtructed many towns and villages. This region at preſent is one of the moſt inhabited of the ruſſian empire.

The ſecond conſiderable colony of the malo-ruſſian Kozaks, the Zaporogians, aroſe much earlier than the ſlobode regiments. In order the better to defend the country of the ukraine Kozaks againſt the inroads of the Tartars, it had been ſettled that a part of the young unmarried men ſhould always abide on the ſouthern borders where the Dniepr falls into the Euxine; by which means this diſtrict ſhortly became a rendezvous of ſtout martial youths, and the ſtay there was conſidered as a ſchool for military exerciſes. The poliſh government favoured this ſeminary, by which the country obtained the benefit of a border-militia; and the greater degree of freedom in which the young Kozaks here paſſed their time, was ſo agreeable to them, that they were never deſirous of a diſcharge from their unquiet and dangerous poſts. Accuſtomed to a bachelor's life they admitted no women among them; yet their numbers were gradually increaſing by fugitive Kozaks who ſought a ſhelter among them from poliſh oppreſſion. By little and little their habitations extended to the ſhores of the Bogue, and they eſtabliſhed themſelves in all the adjacent parts. About the commencement of the ſeventeenth century they came to a total ſeparation from the parental ſtock, the malo-ruſſian Kozaks, under the hetman whereof they had hitherto lived, and erected a military

military ſtate of their own, whoſe chief was to be an elective arbitrary koſchevoi-ataman. Their chief-ſeat, which they called *ſetſcha*, conſiſted of a fortified camp, and though they often removed it from one place to another, yet they conſtantly remained about the cataracts, *porogi*, of the Dniepr, from which they received their diſtinctive appellation *: Zaporogi, "at the cataracts."

The conſtitution of this little military nation was one of the moſt curious in the world. War was the ultimate aim of their ſocial connection, their habitual trade, and their darling employment. Agriculture and the breeding of cattle they entirely neglected, and followed the fiſhery, and the chace, no otherwiſe than as matters of paſtime. Celibacy being enjoined as a fundamental law of their ſtate, for gratifying the inſtincts of nature they made a practice of bringing off women from their neighbours; but the raviſhers were obliged to keep the victims of their luſt at a diſtance from the ſetſcha. In order to keep up their numbers, they not only ſtole children wherever they could catch them, but criminals and vagabonds from all the nations around were welcomed and adopted by them. There are but few

* *Koſch* in the tartarian ſignifies a camp. Ataman is of like import with hetman. The term *ſetſcha* comes from the ruſs verb to cut off, to lop away (1); the camp was fortified, and conſequently cut off from the circumjacent region or diſtrict. *Za* in ruſs ſignifies behind, beyond, and *porog* a cataract or water-fall.

(1) Otſſetſeh.

european languages that were not ſpoken among them. — Their conſtitution was purely democratic; every kozak enjoyed equal rights. Their ataman was elected annually; and, on the expiration of his office, fell again to the rank of the common Kozaks. Every citizen of the republic had equal pretenſions to this ſovereign dignity. — No written laws were known to them, but they had uſages which held the place of law, and by which deciſions were made with extraordinary ſtrictneſs and impartiality. A Kozak who killed his fellow-citizen was buried alive with the body. A thief was obliged to ſtand three days on the pillory, and puniſhed with laſhes till frequently he died under the ſcourge. — The generality of them adhered to the greek church; yet no notice was taken of diverſity of opinion in matters of faith. Their moral character was conformable to their way of life and form of government: they had all the virtues and vices of a free people ſubſiſting by war and rapine. They were courageous and ſavage; hoſpitable and greedy of prey; active and temperate on their expeditions, and lazy and gluttonous at home. — The number of effective men among them, amounted at times to forty thouſand *.

* The ruſſian chancery was ſeldom exactly informed of the real number of the Kozaks, they conſidering their force as a political ſecret. In the year 1764, the number of effective people was thought to amount to 27,117; but probably they were much ſtronger.

Theſe

Theſe Kozaks have often changed their ſovereignty, if we may ſo call the relation in which this indomptable people ſtood one while with Poland, then with the Tartars and the Porte, and laſtly with Ruſſia. Peter the great deſtroyed their ſetſcha, on their taking part in the rebellion of the ukrainian hetman Mazeppa; but they aſſembled again afterwards under the protection of the khan of the Krimea, and were re-admitted in 1737 as ruſſian vaſſals. A chancery was erected for the purpoſe of overſeeing them, which however had but little or no influence on their internal government. The only obligation they were under to the empire was to appear in the field when commanded, at which times they were paid and provided as was cuſtomary with the Kozaks. In the Turkiſh war which terminated in 1774, they not only proved faithleſs on ſeveral occaſions, but alſo betrayed their deſign of rendering themſelves independent. When they re-captured the region of the Dniepr, which at that time was called New Servia, but afterwards belonged to the New-ruſſian government, and was peopled with coloniſts, they declared that country to be their property, practiſed hoſtilities againſt the ſettlers, and partly by artifice and partly by violence reduced about fifty thouſand Malo-ruſſians to their obedience. This rebellion, their life of cellbacy and rapine, the total neglect of agriculture in ſo fertile a country, and the conſtant reſiſtance they made to every attempt at bringing them to a better conduct, at length determined

mined the empreſs, in the year 1775, entirely to annihilate the exiſtence of this little ſpartan ſtate. A body of ruſſian troops ſurrounded and diſarmed them. A manifeſto was iſſued, by which it was left to their choice, whether, by adopting a decent and moral regimen, they would become uſeful ſubjects, or take themſelves out of the empire. A part of them remained, and took to various trades; others in numerous bands withdrew to the Turks and Tartars, or led a roving life about the ruſſian frontiers. The country which they had poſſeſſed was added to the then New-ruſſian government, and belongs at preſent to that of Ekatarinoſlaf.

Thus far their hiſtory is known and even related by foreign writers. Not ſo notorious, however, is the remarkable fact, that the zaporogian Kozaks ſtill ſubſiſt, only under another name, and have recently received a new conſtitution in a country allotted to them. By an ukaſe of the 30th of June 1792, Catharine II. aſſigned to the Zaporogians, who rendered themſelves ſerviceable during the laſt Turkiſh war, the iſland of Taman (belonging to the province of Taurida) with the entire region between the river Kuban and the ſea of Azof as far as the rivers Yeya and Laba (a tract of 1017 ſquare geographical miles) for their place of ſettlement. They obtained at the ſame time, under the name of Kozaks of the Euxine, a well-regulated kozak-conſtitution, and the right of electing their own atamans; but are immediately dependent on the governor of the

the province of Taurida, and are placed under the department of the college of war. Their numbers, of both ſexes, amount now to above twenty thouſand, among whom is a diſciplined corps well-equipped of fifteen thouſand men.

The ſecond main branch of the Kozaks are the DONSKOI. They have this appellation from the region of the river Don, which they have conſtantly inhabited, and moſt probably derive their deſcent from novgorodian Ruſſians. The firſt ſettlements of them on the Don cannot well have been earlier than after the Tartars were forced out of thoſe parts. The ſame homeſtead and a ſimiliar mode of life probably occaſioned the tartarian name of Kozaks to be given to the riſing colony, which was afterwards communicated to the confederate Malo-ruſſians, who lived under a like military conſtitution. It is not improbable that the Ruſſians, on their firſt coming, found ſtill conſiderable remains of Tartars in theſe parts, with whom they united, inducing them to adopt the greek religion and the ruſſian language. This ſuppoſition at leaſt accounts for the rapid increaſe of the republic, and the ruſſo-tartarian mixture which is ſtill perceived, as well in the features as in the language of the donſkoi Kozaks.

This colony, ſoon after its origin became a conſiderable ſtate. The happy effects of their profitable warfare tempted a multitude of bold and enter-

priſing youths to come over to them from all the provinces of the empire; and the vaſſalage of the boors, introduced about this time into Ruſſia, contributed greatly to multiply their numbers by runaways from this depreſſed condition. A great many eſcaped back to their former homeſtead, and even the priſoners of war obtained denizenſhip by the policy of the Kozaks, for the ſake of increaſing the number of their ſoldiery.

After the unfortunate campaign of the Turks againſt Aſtrakhan in 1570, they felt themſelves ſufficiently bold and powerful to make Tſcherkaſk heir capital ſixty verſts from the fort of Azof belonging to the Turks. — They were now in reality a bulwark to the ruſſian empire; the monarchs of it therefore acted by theſe Kozaks, as the kings of Poland about the ſame time did by the Maloruſſians: they favoured their growth, aſſigned them countries free of impoſts, on the borders, and endeavoured to keep them in a ſort of dependence which might be uſeful to the government, eſpecially in times of war. In the year 1579, we for the firſt time meet with donſkoi Kozaks among the ruſſian troops; a body of them conſiſting of three thouſand men were in the expedition made by tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch againſt Livonia, by whom they were alſo paid. Since that time they have frequently been of great ſervice to the ruſſian empire by their bravery; though from their love of independence

and from their propenſity to depredation, they have ſuffered themſelves to be incited to rebellion *.

At preſent the donſkoi Kozaks inhabit the plains about the Don, between the governments of Saratof, Caucaſus, Voronetſh, and Ekatarinoſlaf, as far as the ſea of Azof. Their territory, which even now amounts to upwards of three thouſand ſix hundred ſquare miles, was formerly far more extenſive; but ſince the rebellion of 1708, a part of it has been added to the adjacent provinces. As the donſkoi Kozaks have preſerved their kozak conſtitution entire, they live under a military regimen totally different from the other governments. Their number is eſtimated at two hundred thouſand, of whom a corps of light-cavalry of twenty-five thouſand is always ready for marching.

Internal revolutions, and a diſpoſition to broils, have given birth to many emigrations of the donſkoi Kozaks, whereby ſeveral new branches of Kozaks have ariſen, of which only the moſt ſignal are deſerving of being further particulariſed. — The earlieſt emigrations happened to the Volga, where the Kozaks uſed only to tarry in ſummer, and on the approach of winter to return to their dwellings about the Don. In proceſs of time, a part of them completely ſettled about the firſt mentioned river, whereby ſeveral towns on the Volga, as Saratof,

* The moſt important rebellions of this nation, are that of the year 1670, of which Stenka Raſin was at the head, and that of 1708, under the conduct of Bulavin.

Dmitreſſk,

Dmitrefſk, Tzaritzin, Tſchernoi Yar, and others, obtained inhabitants, who afterwards for the moſt part went over to the civil conſtitution. In the year 1734, the VOLGAIC Kozaks were declared independent on thoſe of the Don; when they obtained equal privileges with the latter, and had their own ataman. At preſent the kozak regimen is aboliſhed among the greater part of them; no more than two colonies are upon the true kozak eſtabliſhment and perform military ſervice. Theſe are the DUBOFSKOI and the ASTRAKHANSKOI. The former have their chief ſeat in the little town of Dubofca, on the right bank of the Volga. The country aſſigned them lies between Dmitrefſk and Tzaritzin, and extends over a ſpace of a hundred verſts in length and ſixty in breadth. They amount to about three thouſand heads. In the year 1776, they were obliged to deliver a part of their men, who were formed into a proper kozak regiment, and had its quarters between Moſdok and Azof. — The aſtrakhan Kozaks dwell partly in the city of Aſtrakhan, and partly in the villages around; in numbers they are about equal to the former.

A ſecond colony of the donſkoi Kozaks are the GREBENSKOI who ſeparated from their parent-ſtock nearly at the ſame time with the VOLGAIC, and ſettled about the river Terek, whence they are alſo called TEREKSKOI Kozaks. In a campaign of the tzar Ivan I. againſt the caucaſian Tartars, a body of them, as the van of the army, penetrated into a part

a part of this great chain of mountains, which on account of its prominent rocks was likened to a *comb* *; and on this occaſion it was that they received their appellation, which they generally bear to this day. Their preſent homeſtead is on the Terek, where their regiment, conſiſting of twelve hundred men, does duty in the frontier lines againſt the highland Tartars of Caucaſus.

They dwell in five fortified ſtanitzas, making ſo many companies. Beſides their own commanders and war-officers †, they are under the orders of the commandants in the Kitzliar and Moſdok. Being principally employed againſt the Tartars of Mount Caucaſus, they are almoſt always under arms, and therefore in conſtant pay. Being thus inured to ſervice, courageous, and well-acquainted with the mountains and the tartarian manner of fighting, they are of excellent ſervice againſt theſe untractable and piratical neighbours; but their number not being ſufficient, in the year 1776, ſix ſtanitzas, or fortified villages, between Moſdok and Azof, were added to them, and ſupplied with Kozaks from the Volga. Theſe form one diſtinct polk, or corps, under the denomination of the troop of Aſtrakhan Kozaks.—Near the grebenſkoi Kozaks dwell the ARMENSKOI, who are of the ſame origin with them, and therefore need no particular account.

* In ruſs, *greben*. † Voiſkovoi atamun.

More

More lately than the volgaic, the ORENBURG-Kozaks ſeparated from their common ſtem. At their firſt riſe they dwelt collectively about the river Samara; but, after the conſtruction of the orenburg-line in 1730 to 1740, the major part of them were tranſported thither. At preſent they have their homeſtead along the Samara; along the Ui and the Ural, from Verkuralſk to Iletzk, alſo in the petty forts erected againſt the Kirghiſes and the Baſhkirs. In all theſe forts, Orenburg excepted, they compoſe the majority of the inhabitants, and can eaſily bring twenty-thouſand men into the field; though only from eight thouſand to ten thouſand are inrolled for military ſervice.

One of the moſt numerous and powerful branches of the donſkoi ſtem is formed by the URALSKOI, formerly called the YAÏKSKOI Kozaks. According to their traditions they firſt aroſe about the beginning of the fifteenth century by an inconſiderable number who drew towards the Caſpian as freebooters, and afterwards eſtabliſhed themſelves at the mouth of the river Ural, formerly called the Yaïk. Augmented by Tartarian ſtragglers and priſoners of war, the colony ſoon ſpread farther up the ſhores of this river; and, at the time of their voluntary ſubmiſſion to tzar Mikhaila Feodorovitch, they were already a conſiderable nation, which has ſince much increaſed by emigrations from the Don. At the commencement of the laſt century they obtained

tained from the ruſſian government a regular conſtitution, with permiſſion to ſettle in their preſent poſſeſſions. They were placed on the footing of the Kozaks of the Don, obtained the free and exceedingly productive fiſhery of the Ural, the licence to fetch their ſalt, duty-free, from the adjacent ſaline-lakes, the liberty to diſtil brandy, together with ſeveral other privileges. Preſuming upon their opulence, in the year 1772 they roſe up againſt a reform, propoſed by the government, of the irregular troops; they were, however, ſoon reduced to obedience. The year following a part of them joined the crew of the famous rebel Yemelyan Pugatſhef. On the reſtoration of tranquillity the government reſtored to them their poſſeſſions and privileges; but in order to efface the memorial of this rebellion, the name of theſe Kozaks, that of their capital, and of the river where they dwelt, were aboliſhed, and changed for thoſe they bear at preſent.

Since that time their political conſtitution has got a ſomewhat different form, to prevent the like misfortunes in future. Their number is computed to be about thirty thouſand men fit to bear arms, and they keep up a corps properly equipped of twelve thouſand men, among whom, however, are many Tartars and baptized Kalmuks. Their proper homeſtead is along the right ſhore of the Ural, from the mouth of the Ilek to the Caſpian; where, beſides

ſides their grand capital Uralſk, they poſſeſs the important town of Gurief on the Caſpian, and perform ſervice in the line of forts on the Ural againſt the Kirghiſes. On the left or kirghiſian ſide of the Ural they have only the ſmall fort Iletsk on the Ilek, which is inhabited by an independent colony detached from the main body. Their territory, which extends in length eighty geographical miles, yet forms no particular diviſion in the political geography of the empire, (like the homeſteads of the Kozaks of the Don and the Euxine,) but belongs to the government of Caucaſus.

The laſt, and in its origin the moſt remarkable branch of the great donſkoi family, that we ſhall here mention, are the SIBERIAN-Kozaks. Inſtigated by a diſpoſition to roaming and to pillage, conſiderable multitudes of donſkoi-Kozaks, in the ſixteenth century abandoned their homeſtead on the Don, in order to rob and plunder the countries lying eaſtward. In their predatory expeditions they were not only dangerous to the newly-acquired ruſſian poſſeſſions on the Volga, but they even ventured to embark on the Caſpian, where as enterpriſing pirates they ſoon became formidable to all the bordering nations. At the time that theſe deſolating ſwarms of robbers were ſpreading terror on every ſide, Ivan Vaſſillievitch II. ſat upon the ruſſian throne. The efforts of this prince to reſtore order and ſecurity to the provinces he had conquered from

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the Tartars, and to give vigour to the commerce with the neighbouring aſiatic nations, had ſcarcely ſtruck root, when the flagitious ſpirit of depredation on the part of the Kozaks threatened to fruſtrate his faireſt hopes. He, therefore, in the year 1577, aſſembled a conſiderable army and got together a fleet of ſhips to chaſtiſe theſe audacious hordes, and to reſtrain them for ever within the bounds of duty. Panic-ſtruck at theſe mighty preparations, the robbers diſperſed and fled into the neighbouring regions. A company of between ſix and ſeven thouſand, proceeded, under the conduct of their ataman Yermak Timofeiyef, along the rivers Kama and Tſchuſſovaiya, onwards to Permia, and aſcended the Ural mountains. Here Yermak ſaw before him the immenſe tract of country which we now call Siberia; unknown wilderneſſes and ferocious tribes, never ſeen by the reſt of mankind, ſeemed neceſſarily to ſet bounds to his farther progreſs; but animated by courage, and delighted with the bold idea of being here the founder of a new and extenſive empire, Yermak, with his handful of armed companions, marched down the ſide of the Ural chain, defeated the tartar khan Kutſchum, preſſed forwards to the Tobol and to the Irtyſh, and to the Oby, and ſubjugated on this aſtoniſhing expedition, Tartars, Vogules, and Oſtiaks. Fortune had done much for Yermak, and Yermak had done every thing he could for being worthy of his ſucceſs, but

ſhe denied him the enjoyment of his heroic enterpriſe. His little army, waſted by battles and fatigues, was not ſufficient to maintain a tract of ſo many thouſand ſquare miles, and to keep in obedience ſuch a number of conquered nations. In the impoſſibility of completing his conqueſt by the eſtabliſhment of a ſtate, he reſolved at leaſt to reſcue from oblivion the memorial of his atchievement, by raiſing for poſterity an indelible monument of the the boldneſs of his genius. He accordingly in 1581 made over his conqueſts by a formal capitulation to tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch; who, in return for this important ſervice rendered to the country, abſolved him from all reſponſibility for his former undertakings to the detriment of it, and nobly rewarded his magnanimity and his talents.

If ever a grand project was brought to effect by ſmall and inſignificant means, it was certainly in this conqueſt of Siberia; and if the man who was capable of conceiving it, and with ſuch means of accompliſhing his purpoſe, merits the appellation of a great man, then poſterity cannot refuſe that name to the conqueror of Siberia.—Yermak had not the good fortune to ſee his plan of conqueſt ripen to perfection. He died in 1584; but after his death the diſcovery and conqueſts were proſecuted, by regiments of donſkoi-Kozaks ſent thither for that purpoſe, as far as the eaſtern ocean and the mountains of China; and in the middle of the 17th century

tury this whole part of the world was already a ruſſian province.—As well thoſe who were implicated in Yermak's rebellion, as the Kozaks who had more lately come to Siberia remained in that country as a militia to keep the reduced nations in obedience. Moſt of them married with the natives of all nations; many of thoſe who came afterwards brought their families with them. This was the origin of the ſiberian-Kozaks, whoſe number at preſent far exceeds a hundred thouſand; but of whom the greater part carry on trades as burghers, and only about fourteen thouſand do military duty as proper Kozaks.

We paſs on now to the remaining branches of the ſlavonian ſtock, which either wholly or in part are inhabitants of the ruſſian empire; confining ourſelves to the moſt ſtriking reſults in the account we ſhall give of them, as the greater part have their own hiſtories, which only in certain reſpects have any connection with our preſent plan.

2. Of the three ſlavonian nations, properly ſo called, that are inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, next to the principal nation, the POLES are the moſt numerous. According to the ruſſian year-books, (for domeſtic accounts are here entirely wanting,) this people, at the ſame time with the ruſſian Slavi, and on the ſame occaſion, came from the Danube to the Viſtula. Their ſtate, now nearly extinct, was probably founded in the ninth century; though

they firſt appear in hiſtory only at the cloſe of the tenth. Notwithſtanding they ſprung from one ſtock with the Ruſſians, the two nations were almoſt continually involved in hoſtilities, now threatening the one, and now the other with deſtruction, and which finally terminated in depriving the Poles of their exiſtence as an independent nation. For rendering the mutual relations of the two countries more perſpicuous, it will be neceſſary to diſtinguiſh two periods: the preponderance of the poliſh ſtate over the ruined ruſſian empire; and the triumph of the latter, with its increaſing power, over the declining poliſh republic.

The former period dates its origin from the unfortunate battle on the Kolka, in which the combined power of the ruſſian princes was defeated by the Tartars, and in its conſequences brought Ruſſia under the dominion of theſe furious conquerors. During the whole period of the tartarian oppreſſion, and even for a long time after, the Poles and Lithuanians, leſs haraſſed by the mongole-tartarian hordes, maintained a decided ſuperiority over the ruſſian ſtate, enfeebled by its partition and the abuſes of a foreign ſovereignty, and managed it ſo profitably that they ſeized on a great part of the fineſt provinces of that empire. The ſeveral principalities of Smolenſk, Polotſk, Tur, Vitepſk, Lutzk, Briænſk, and Pereyaſlavl, and the whole granddukedom of Kief, with various other tracts of

country,

country, the enumeration whereof would be tedious, fell, in theſe times of devaſtation, by force of arms, to Lithuania; and on the union of that ſtate with the kingdom of Poland, became part of the poliſh empire. After their emancipation from the tartarian yoke, it occurred to the ruſſian princes to proſecute their claims to the captured provinces; but the fortune of war is too changeable always to favour the righteous cauſe, and the greateſt and fineſt part of the loſt territories remained with impunity in the hands of the uſurpers, who dared to abet by their arms the reſiſtance of ſeveral of the ruſſian provinces againſt the ſovereignty of the empire. The domeſtic diſturbances which afterwards weakened Ruſſia, notwithſtanding the reſtoration of the integrity and indiviſibility of the empire, were ever furniſhing the Poles with pretence and occaſion for meddling with its internal affairs. During the deplorable anarchy cauſed by the falſe Demetriuſes, they conſtantly, by the ſuggeſtions of a refined and ambitious policy, took part with one or the other uſurper; and, when at length the poliſh prince Vladiſlaf was called by their influence to the ruſſian throne, they not only recaptured Smolenſk, but even made themſelves maſter of Moſco. Indeed the election of a native prince, and the expulſion of the Poles from the capital, reſtored order and tranquillity to the empire; and once more, and for the laſt time, its independency

was to be purchaſed. The peace which ſecured the throne to the new tzar Mikhaila Romanof, and and diſmiſſed the Poles from Ruſſia, obliged that prince to relinquiſh the provinces of Smolenſk, Severia, and Tſchernigof. With this laſt degradation, however, the poliſh influence ceaſed; the preponderance of this ſtate was gradually declining, and the inexorable Nemeſis brought on the period when the Poles were obliged to do penance by a long ſeries of misfortunes, even to the diſſolution of their national exiſtence, for their miſtaken or ill-ſupported call to the dictature of the north.

Already under the ſucceſſor of the politic but humiliated Mikhaila, Ruſſia completed the wide circuit of her territories by reconquering her raviſhed provinces; and the grand-principality of Kief, after a long ſeparation, united again with the parent-ſtate. In proportion as Ruſſia, by the vigorous transformations of Peter the great, increaſed in inward ſtrength and outward conſequence, Poland was ſinking, through the defects of an ill-organiſed conſtitution, into a political imbecility, the conſequences whereof were but too ſoon viſible to the diſadvantage of the nation.—The cauſes of this decline belong not to the plan of the preſent undertaking; and the progreſs of the ruſſian ſuperiority, with the ultimate conſequence of the unequal relation of the two ſtates, has been already mentioned in its moſt eſſential periods.

Accor-

According to the preſent ſtate of the ruſſian empire, the Poles, excepting the chief nation, form the moſt conſiderable part of the aggregate population. They are either by millions together in the governments of Polotſk, Mohilef, Minſk, Brazlau, Voſneſenſk, Podolia, Volhynia, Vilna, and Slonimſk; or in ſmaller numbers as coloniſts, in the circle of Selenghinſk, on the Irtyſh, and in various other parts of the empire.

3. The third ſlavonian nation within the borders of Ruſſia, are the SERVIANS or SERBES, a branch of the illyrian Slavi. By the denomination of Illyria, was originally underſtood no more than the eaſtern coaſt of the Adriatic. In the fourth century the appellation of Great-Illyria ſprung up, which comprehended almoſt all the roman provinces in the eaſtern part of Europe, between the Adriatic and the Danube, and even quite to Pontus. At preſent that country is divided by its ſovereignties into the venetian, hungarian, and turkiſh Illyria. Of the latter the kingdom of Servia is a part, having received its name from the inhabitants. The Turks call it Laſs Vilayeti, or Lazarus-land, becauſe in the year 1365, when they ſubdued it, Lazarus was prince of Serbia. It formerly conſiſted of two provinces, the proper Serbia and Raſcia, and the inhabitants were accordingly diſtinguiſhed into Serbians and Raſcians.

The Servians and Raitzes in the ruſſian empire are coloniſts, to whom in the year 1754, a conſider-

able diſtrict was allotted on the Dniepr near and upon the poſſeſſions of the zaporogian Kozaks. This country, which got the name of New Servia, was for the moſt part an uninhabited deſart, extending to the then poliſh borders, by which it was ſurrounded on three ſides. The Serbians who voluntarily ſettled here in conſiderable numbers, were formed into a military aſſociation, to be a check upon the diſſenſions and exceſſes of the Zaporogians. In the year 1764, the whole of this tract of country was erected into the government of New Ruſſia, and at preſent forms a conſiderable part of the province of Ekatarinoſlaf.

There are ſtill two other tribes in the ruſſian empire, which, notwithſtanding the obſcurity of their origin, are ſuppoſed to be related to the Slavi. Theſe are, the LITHUANIANS and the LETTISH; the latter alſo compriſe the KURES among them.

4. The lettiſh race, to which the Lettes, LITHUANIANS, and old Pruſſians belong, was not a primitive ſtock, as the finniſh, the germanic, or ſlavonian, but a diſtinct branch, now become incognizable, of the Slavi, and which at the ſame time evinces a near affinity with the Vendi. The conformity of the lettiſh with the ſlavonian and old vendiſh language, and the ſameneſs of their antient mythology, gives to this ſuppoſition a high degree of probability.—The appellative Litva, by which the Lithuanians call themſelves, is found in Neſtor's chronicle

chronicle ſo early as the eleventh century, who enumerates the Lithuanians among the nations tributary to the ruſſian monarchy; which could not find means to render itſelf an independent nation till the time when dangerous inteſtine diviſions ſprang up in Ruſſia under the ſucceſſors of Vladimir the great. She then freed herſelf from the ruſſian ſupremacy, enlarged her borders at the expence of her former maſters, and at length grew to be a power, formidable alike to all her neighbours. In the thirteenth century Ringold firſt appears under the title of a ſovereign grand-prince. His ſon Mendog profited by the tartarian incurſions into Ruſſia for marching forth to make conqueſts here: under him and his ſucceſſors the whole of lithuanian Ruſſia, together with Volhynia and other provinces *, fell off by degrees from Great Ruſſia. Gedemin, one of the moſt renowned of theſe princes, drove the Tartars out of Kief, and ſubjected that grand-dukedom to him. Yaghello, one of his ſucceſſors, of another race, cauſed himſelf to be baptized in 1386, married the poliſh queen Hedvig, and united Lithuania in perpetuity to the ſtate of Poland; in conſequence of which union the conquered ruſſian provinces devolved to that kingdom. Since that period Lithuania has conſtantly followed the fortunes of Poland; and, with the gradual extinction of it, has likewiſe

* See the article, Ruſſia and Poland.

fallen a prey to her ſtronger and powerful neighbours.

At the partition of the year 1773 Lithuania furniſhed the whole ſhare which Ruſſia at that time obtained, and out of which the preſent viceroyalties of Mohilef and Polotſk are formed. In the ſubſequent partition of the year 1793, this grand-duchy again loſt 1731 ſquare miles and 850,000 ſouls, which now belong to the vice-royalty of Minſk; but the larger portion which Ruſſia got on this occaſion, was taken from Little-Poland. In the final partition of the year 1795, the laſt remains of Lithuania alſo fell to the ruſſian empire, of which at preſent the vice-royalties of Vilna and Slonimſk are compoſed. Theſe provinces of the ruſſian empire are therefore thoſe in which Lithuanians reſide, but the number of people of which this nation conſiſts can hardly be given with any degree of accuracy, as they are everywhere mingled with Ruſſians and Poles.

5. The LETTES were originally one people with the Lithuanians. Both nations ſpoke the ſame language, (as even at preſent the lettiſh can only be conſidered as an altered dialect of the lithuanian,) and their very names ſeem in fact to be the ſame *.

Till

* We find in the accounts of the middle ages the following denominations uſed without diſtinction: Letthania, Letthovi a, Litthavia, Litſonia, Lottavi, Litthvini, Letthovini, Litthvani,

Till towards the end of the twelfth century Livonia or Lettland was entirely unknown to the german hiſtorians; it is mentioned only by Danes, Swedes, and Ruſſians; by the two former on occaſion of their piracies, and by the Ruſſians for denoting their dominion over that country.

The provinces on the Baltic, now known by the names of Livonia, Eſthonia, Kurland, and Semigallia, belonged in the earlieſt times to the ruſſian ſtate, and had even a ſhare in the founding of it. Neſtor *, the oldeſt and moſt authentic ruſſian annaliſt, names at leaſt among the tributary nations, Litva, Semigola, Kors, and Lif; that he does not expreſsly mention the Lettes may probably proceed from their not being at that time a particular nation diſtinct from the Lithuanians. The dominion of the ruſſians over theſe nations, is thenceforward confirmed by ſeveral additional teſtimonies. When

ni, Lettones, &c. Probably the Lettes obtained their particular name from their firſt homeſtead. In the circle of Valk, not far from the town of Venden, a river named Leete takes its riſe. This river is called in lettiſh *ta Latte*, and a Lette is in their language Latvis, a man living by the river Latte. It is not unlikely that *Lettgallia*, ſo frequently mentioned in the annals, is from the ſame origin. *Leitis* means in lettiſh a Lithuanian, and *gals* the end, therefore the country which borders on Lithuania. *Tannaus*, hiſt. of Livonia and Eſthonia, vol. i. p. 17.

* See an account of Neſtor and his chronicle, &c. in the Selections from foreign literary Journals, printed for Debrett, 2 vols. 8vo. vol. ii. p. 293, & ſqq.

the Germans had ſettled in Livonia, Meinhard did not dare publicly to preach, till Vladimir, grand-prince of Polotzk had firſt granted him permiſſion; "becauſe (as Henry the Lette affirms) the heathen-"iſh inhabitants were tributary to him." It is obſerved by the ſame native chronicler, that the Lettgallians are of the greek religion; and that the Ruſſians in ſeveral places baptized the heathens. In the year 1209 biſhop Albert openly ſhewed the ſupremacy of the ruſſian grand-princes, when in a treaty of commerce, which he entered upon through the teutonic knight Arnold, he gives ſecurity for the payment of the cuſtomary taxation, and in the year 1211, at the treaty of peace with Vladimir, he completely concedes the tribute.

Certain as it is, from theſe and many other indubitable teſtimonies, that the diſtrict inhabited by Lettes on the Baltic (or on the varagian ſea, as the ruſſian annals ſay) already belonged to Ruſſia in the earlieſt periods of its monarchy; it nevertheleſs appears, that Livonia had then no ſettled conſtitution, nor was bound to the parent ſtate by any firm political tie. Satisfied if the tributary nations only paid their tribute, the ruſſian grand-princes, according to the cuſtom of the age, left the civil conſtitution to the inclination of the Lettes, who therefore knew of no other magiſtracy than their elders, whom they ſtill, from the ſlavonian term Starſchina, ſtyle Staroſts: the ruſſians even made no

oppoſition

oppoſition to the attempts of foreign conquerors, who were beginning to erect a new ſovereignty here. Thus it happened, that theſe countries, particularly during the civil diſſentions which preyed upon the vitals of Ruſſia, gradually quitted their looſe connection with that empire, and could not afterwards, notwithſtanding the repeated efforts of the ruſſian princes, be brought back to a re-union, till Peter the great revived the claim which belonged to his ſtate from the very foundation of it in the true import of the word, and indeed by a transfer from the people.

To the reſt of Europe Livonia remained generally unknown, till in the year 1158 it was diſcovered by ſome merchants of Bremen on their ſearch for new branches of commerce towards the north. Theſe mariners landed at the mouth of the Duna, opened a trade with the inhabitants, returned thither ſeveral times, and at length proceeded, with the conſent of the natives, along the ſhore of the Duna, many miles up the country. About eighteen years after the diſcovery, an auguſtine monk, named Meinhard, ſettled in Livonia, who made the Livonians chriſtians, and himſelf their biſhop, whereupon many Germans at various times were induced to repair thither alſo. Towards the end of that century, Knut VI. king of Denmark, made an expedition to Eſthonia, got poſſeſſion of that province, and provided the converted inhabitants with prieſts and churches. For conquering and keeping Livonia, the biſhop in the

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year 1201 founded the order of the Sword-brethren, afterwards called knights Templars, and granted them the third part of the country with all rights and ſovereignty. Theſe knights were all Germans, who converted the natives to chriſtianity with great ſucceſs, though not without bloodſhed, and made them their vaſſals. They afterwards united themſelves with the teutonic order in Pruſſia, to whom Valdimar III. king of Denmark, in the year 1386, ſold Eſthonia for the ſum of eighteen thouſand marks of ſtandard gold. In the year 1521 the livonian heermeiſter Plettenberg again ſeparated from the teutonic order, and was admitted by the emperor Charles V. among the princes of the german empire. The attempts made by tzar Ivan Vaſſillievitch II. to reconquer theſe provinces which had been torn from the ruſſian empire, and the weakneſs of the order, which felt itſelf not in a capacity to reſiſt ſo powerful an enemy, at length in 1561 effected the complete ſeparation of the livonian ſtate. Eſthonia put itſelf under the protection of Sweden, Livonia united with Poland, and Courland was a peculiar dukedom under Poliſh ſupremacy, which the laſt heermeiſter Gotthard Kettler held as a fief of that crown.

From this æra Livonia became the unhappy object of contention, for which Sweden, Ruſſia, and Poland, for an entire century, were continually exhauſting themſelves in bloody wars. During this period it had

had once nearly become a peculiar kingdom*; but Sweden at laſt got the upperhand, and, at the peace of Oliva in 1660, added this province to the poſſeſſion of Eſthonia. Both countries finally, after a war of twenty years, came to the Ruſſians by the treaty of Nyſtadt in 1721, and form at preſent the vice-royalties of Riga and Reval.

The events of the duchy of Courland till the year 1561, are interwoven with the hiſtory of Livonia, as, from the time of its conqueſt by the knights of the croſs, it conſtituted a part of the livonian ſtate. Gotthard Kettler, as above related, ſnatched from its ruins the new-erected dukedom as his proper ſpoil; and, from that period, Courland appears in hiſtory as a peculiar ſtate. On the extinction of Kettler's male race the eſtates of Poland endeavoured to ſeize upon Courland as a lapſed fief, and to unite it immediately with the kingdom; but the couriſh nobility preſerved to themſelves, by the aid of the ruſſian court, the right of electing a new duke.

* Among the attempts made by tzar Ivan Vaſſillieviteh II. to obtain the ſovereignty of Livonia, one was by making an offer to the Daniſh prince Magnus, in the year 1596, of this country under the title of a kingdom, reſerving to himſelf the paramount lordſhip, and an inconſiderable annual tribute. This propoſal was enforced by a ruſſian army of twenty-five thouſand men; and Magnus for a time actually ſtyled himſelf king of Livonia. This project, however, by the war which broke out upon it with Sweden and Poland, terminated ſo unfortunately, that Ivan even loſt his own poſſeſſions in Livonia, and Magnus obtained the biſhopric of Pilten during his natural life.

Their choice in 1737 fell on count Erneſt John von Biren, who was ſucceeded in the government by his ſon Peter. — As, on the total diſſolution of the kingdom of Poland, the feudal connection with it fell off of courſe, and the duchy, in its declining condition, thinking it could not ſubſiſt without a more powerful patronage, the eſtates of the country agreed in the year 1795 by a free reſolution * to conſider the feudal conſtitution as demoliſhed, and unconditionally to ſubmit themſelves to the empreſs of Ruſſia. Their example was followed by the biſhopric of Pilten which had ſtood immediately under the crown of Poland.

The fate of Poliſh Livonia is deſerving of ſome brief notice here. This tract of country, which, under the government of the teutonic order, formed likewiſe a part of the livonian ſtate, reverted in the year 1561, with the whole province of that name, to Poland. At the peace of Oliva, by which Livonia came under the ſovereignty of Sweden, this ſole diſtrict however remained to the poliſh ſtate, retaining from that time its name in contradiction to ſwediſh Livonia. On the partition of 1773, this country, which had hitherto conſtituted its particular voivodeſhip, was annexed to Ruſſia, and now comprehends the two circles of Dunaburg and Reſitza in the viceroyalty of Polotſk.

We will now once more ſurvey the tracts of the Ruſſian empire which are inhabited by Lettes. The

* See Life of the Empreſs Catharine II. vol. iii.

homeſtead of this nation is not the whole of Livonia, but only a part of it which is called Lettland *; the Kures in Courland, Semigallia, and the biſhopric of Pilten are true Lettes; by whom, in part, the lettiſh language is ſpoken in the greateſt purity: but this people is moſtly degenerated in poliſh Livonia, where they are mixed with Poles and Ruſſians †. The number of them at preſent, for want of proper ſtatements, cannot be accurately aſcertained; but in the viceroyalty of Riga alone, there were upwards of 226,000 Lettes, according to the laſt cenſus.

At preſent they are no longer known as a ſeparate people; they were mingled by imperceptible degrees, and at laſt blended with the Lettes, the Eſthes, and the Coures, or, as we uſually call them, the Lettonians, the Eſthonians, and Courlanders. The moſt viſible remnant of them is at Salis, where, in converſation with others, in the churches and ſchools, they ſpeak the lettiſh language; but in their houſes and among themſelves they uſe the antient lieviſh. The Liefs that were ſome time ago diſcovered on the ſea-ſhores in Courland have been thought, and not without reaſon, to be run-away boors from

* Livonia, or the preſent viceroyalty of Riga, conſiſts of nine diſtricts or circles, of which four compoſe what is properly termed Lettland. The remaining five circles are inhabited by Eſthonians.

† Even the nobility, which, as in all the other parts of the antient livonian ſtate, is originally german, has, under the poliſh ſupremacy, diſuſed the german language, and adopted that of the Poles.

Salis.

Salis. To conclude, in regard to their exterior there is now no viſible difference between them and the Lettes.

The Lettes, or Lettonians, a people always peaceable, induſtrious, hoſpitable, frugal, and of ſomewhat better diſpoſitions than the Eſthonians, inhabited the greater part of the Venden diſtrict, and extended themſelves even into Dorpat; and therefore it is, that the chronicles mention the Lettes in Ungannia. That they were at all times a nation entirely diſtinct from the Liefs and Eſthes is evinced by their language, ſome particular cuſtoms, the general concurrence of hiſtory, and the implacable hatred of the two laſt-mentioned nations againſt them, which they were conſtantly exerciſing in ſcorn and oppreſſion. That averſion even ſtill ſeems not to be extinct; for the Liefs that live among them do not willingly intermarry with them, and the Eſthes are very apt to deride and deſpiſe them.

Their origin has been at one time ſought for among the grecian, and at others among the ſarmatian tribes. Without meddling with the controverſy whether they were formerly called Latzians, or were driven out by the Perſians, we perceive by their language, that they are of affinity with the Courlanders, or Coures, and properly of lithuanian, or in general of ſlavonian origin. In their language we find a mixture of other people, as it contains many words borrowed from the ruſſian, the poliſh, the

the eſthonian, the german, and even ſome apparently from the latin; which may be accounted for from their derivation, their migrations, and their mixture with other people. At preſent they occupy two diſtricts, which both together, after them, are called Lettland. By the augmentation they received from the Liefs, (now reckoned with the Lettes,) the Vendes, the Lettgallians, and the Eſthonians, they are now more numerous than they were in the twelfth century. The Lettes call themſelves Latweetis.

The Lithuanians live in the government of Polotſk and Moghilef: they, as well as the Lettonians, are intermixed with Slavonians and Finns, but chiefly with the latter, and are of the ſame confeſſion of faith with the Poles.

SECTION II.

Finns.

A SECOND main ſtem of the nations dwelling in Ruſſia is that of the FINNS, of which, though not one branch (the Hungarians excepted, if we chooſe to reckon them among them) has ever riſen into a ruling nation; yet, as being the common ſtock of moſt of the northern nations of Europe, is exceedingly remarkable for its antiquity and its wide extent, from Scandinavia to a great diſtance in the aſiatic regions of the north; and thence again to

the ſhores of the Volga and the Caſpian. Diſperſed as all the finniſh nations are in this prodigious ſpace, yet the reſemblance, in bodily frame, in national character, in language, and in manners is preſerved. It is ſcarcely leſs remarkable, that the generality of the finniſh races ſtill dwell only in the north, which has ever been their favourite abode, and on which account they are likewiſe called inhabitants of moraſſes or fens; and the chace and the fiſhery have ever been with each of them their chief occupation and trade. So great a reſemblance ſeems to leave us in no doubt concerning the common deſcent of the nations that fall under this diviſion of our work; which of them, however, is properly the parent ſtock, can hardly be decided. The aboriginal name FINNS already known to Tacitus, is in uſe with none of theſe nations; but they call themſelves by a different appellation.

Uncertain as the proper and original denomination of this people is, not leſs obſcure are alſo their origin and the early events that befel them.

None of theſe nations, ſome of them of very great antiquity, numerous and far extended, (the Magyares excepted,) has ever played a conſpicuous part on the theatre of the world; no one of them has ever acquired a laſting independency, or produced a hero: but they have all, as far back as authentic hiſtory reaches, been a prey to their more enterpriſing and powerful neighbours. Accordingly they have no chronicles of their own; and their hiſtory

hiſtory is only to be found in the annals of their conquerors.

On taking a ſurvey of the whole extent of Scandinavia and Ruſſia, which is ſtored with finniſh nations, it is eaſy for the mind to conceive how the parent ſtem might come from the borders of Aſia to the Baltic, then to have roamed along the northern coaſt of that ſea, and to have ſpread on both ſides of it deep into the ſouth, till in proceſs of time it penetrated, here by Lettes and Slavonians, there by german Scandinavians, far into the north. But probable as this hypotheſis may be, few data for its confirmation are to be met with in hiſtory. It names to us, indeed, from the ninth and the twelfth centuries, the Permians, the Finns, the Lapländers, and a few other tribes, which now are no longer known, or at leaſt ſolely by their names: but even of theſe we find only ſcattered accounts in the annals of the people who were concerned in trade with them; and the other finniſh races on the Volga and in Siberia have not been diſcovered till the recent progreſs of the Ruſſians into thoſe parts. All therefore that is known of their antient hiſtory is this, that they poſſeſſed the greater part of Scandinavia and Ruſſia in the north, and ſeparated into ſeveral tribes, which either lived entirely without any government, or, like the Permians and proper Finns, under their own kings. — All theſe were gradually ſubjugated by three nations, under the

dominion of whom they ſtill remain: the Norwegians, the Ruſſians, and the Swedes.

The NORWEGIANS were the firſt who ſubjected a part of the finniſh north. Finmark has ever been tributary to them; yet it appears that long before the commencement of the tenth century, the whole tract from Vardhuys to the White-ſea was independent of them; and that only the remoter Finns about the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, and on the Dvina, obtained their national freedom. The enterpriſing Norwegians were not content with letting out the conquered countries to vaſſals, but they advanced to the independent diſtricts, particularly to Permia, partly for the ſake of commerce, and partly for the purpoſes of rapine and ſpoil. Theſe expeditions to Permia, which in time became regularly made every year, were firſt checked by the incurſions of the Mongoles into Ruſſia, and at length entirely ceaſed, when the princes of Novgorod made themſelves maſters of that country, and the commerce of thoſe parts.

The ſecond nation which diſperſed itſelf in the finniſh parts of the north, were the RUSSIANS; who, though at firſt, on their ſettling about the Volkhof, lived on good terms with their neighbours the Tſchudes or Finns, and even elected a government conjointly with them, yet they afterwards, later than the Norwegians, and earlier than the Swedes, conquered and ſubdued them.

Karelia,

Karelia, together with a part of Kexholm, ſeems to have been the firſt diſtrict of which the Ruſſians of Ingria made themſelves maſters. Wherefore all the ruſſian Finns, even ſuch as neither in regard to their place of habitation nor their deſcent were Karelians, but not till a later period were maſtered by the Ruſſians, were formerly called by the Norwegians Kyrialians. The Ruſſians at firſt had nothing but the region about the gulf of Finland, or on the Kyrialabotn, and about the Ladoga lake, quite up to the White-ſea. They afterwards ſpread farther round in theſe deſert countries, where nothing was fixed by ſtated limits, and ſubjected to them a part of Finland. On the incurſion of the Mongoles, the expeditions of the Norwegians to Permia ceaſed: and now the Novgorodians began alſo to ſpread themſelves farther to the north; and in the fourteenth century Permia was converted to the chriſtian faith by biſhop Stephen.

Probably at the ſame time ſome Permians fled acroſs the White-ſea to eſcape this fiery zeal for making proſelytes; and thus gave the Ruſſians, who purſued their fugitives, the firſt occaſion for eſtabliſhing themſelves in Lapland. The latter now ſoon began to quarrel with the norwegian bailiffs, whoſe buſineſs it was to collect the tribute in theſe parts. They proceeded to acts of violence, and war began on the borders; when the Ruſſians, who were nearer and more powerful, obtained the advantage. They took in the ſequel, not only all Lappmark round Kola, but proceeded ſo far as to

levy a tribute on the Finns in the preſent Finmark, and on thoſe who dwelt in Trumſen as far as Malanger. The other finniſh nations in the eaſt, on the Volga and in Siberia, became ſubject to them with their gradual extenſion in theſe regions, by the conqueſt of the tartar kingdoms and the diſcovery of Siberia.

The SWEDES were the laſt who founded a ſovereignty in the finniſh parts of the north. It was not till the middle of the twelfth century that Erik the ſaint ſubjugated and converted the proper Finns; a hundred years afterwards the Swedes ſet foot in Tavaſtland; towards the end of the thirteenth century they eſtabliſhed themſelves in Karelia; and about the ſame time the Laplanders were alſo reduced to their obedience.

Thus then the whole of the finniſh north was partitioned among three ſovereigns, and the nation itſelf was removed from the rank of independent people. — We now leave the ſtationary point from which we ſurveyed the whole of its territory, becauſe henceforward there are norwegian, ſwediſh, and ruſſian Finns, and only the laſt are here the object of our attention. Of the thirteen tribes into which the finniſh ſtock divided, twelve belong either wholly or in part to the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, namely, the Laplanders, the Finns, the Eſthonians, the Livonians, Tſcheremiſſes, Tſchuvaſches, Mordvines, Votiaks, Permiaks, Siryanes, Vogules, and Kondiſh Oſtiaks. The Madſhares alone,

alone *, the great mass of the mixed multitudes whom we at present call Hungarians, are the only finnish nation which belongs not to Russia, and also the only one that has preserved its national independence.

1. The LAPPES or LAPLANDERS inhabit the extremities of the scandinavian parts on the north-eastward to the White-sea, between the 65th and the 75th degrees of north latitude. Saxo Grammaticus, an historian of the twelfth century, mentions them first under this name, which signifies a sorcerer, and was given them by the Swedes; having been formerly comprised under the general denomination of Quenlanders or Kayanians. They call themselves Sabme-ladzh, (in the plural number Same,) and their country Same-ednam.

The modern Lapland, a country abounding in mountainous forests and lakes, is divided into the norwegian, swedish, and russian Lapland. To Norway belongs the north-western, to Sweden the

* Magyar, as they call themselves, or Ugrians, as they are termed in the russian year-books, of which the modern Europeans have made Hungarians. — Schlœtzer reckons no more than twelve finnish nations, for he excludes the Tschuvasches from that stock, though he formerly joined them with it. Even this critical inquirer into history thinks the Finns an european parent-stock, (according to the interpretation which he gives to these words, *quos aliunde venisse nulla memoria est*,) as they possess almost the whole north of Europe, from Norway as far as the Ural; whereas the asiatic Finns seem to be only branches broken off.

ſouthern, and to Ruſſia the eaſtern part. According to the political diſtribution of the ruſſian empire, ruſſian Lapland forms only one circle of the vice-royalty of Archangel, the chief town of which is Kola, and is about a thouſand verſts in diameter. The number of the ruſſian Laplanders, called by the Ruſſians Lopari, amounts to not much above twelve hundred families. When and in what manner this people probably came under the ruſſian government has been already noticed.

Schober, in his Memorabilia Ruſſico-Aſiatica, relates the ſtory of a Laplander, who had lived ſome time at Aſtrakhan *. This Laplander, on account of his uncommonly capacious memory, was the wonder of his time. He had been privately ſtolen away from his native country, when very young, and brought up at Stockholm; Charles XI. ſent him afterwards, with a conſiderable ſtipend, to Wittenberg, in order to ſtudy theology. It was thought he might be uſefully employed as a miſſionary to preach the goſpel to the Laplanders in their own tongue. Having finiſhed his academical ſtudies, he returned to Stockholm; where, on being examined at court, he was found to ſpeak latin readily, though in general faultily. He preached without heſitation, but alſo without ſenſe. The miniſtry of Stockholm thought him capable of undertaking, under the

* He is alſo ſpoken of by Weber, in veranderten Ruſsland, vol. ii. p. 165.

divine

divine bleſſing, the work of converſion in his own country, and ordained him accordingly to make proſelytes in Lapland.

The converter of the heathen being arrived among his countrymen, found that rein-deer-milk and dried fiſh were no longer to his palate. Scarcely had he been there half a year, but he mounted a rein-deer, forſook his miſerable country, preſented himſelf at Stockholm in the dreſs of a common Laplander, and got a few pence from the populace by making a ſhow of his beaſt. Falling into extreme contempt by this degrading employment, he determined to repair to Denmark. About the year 1704, he made his entry into Copenhagen, ſitting on his rein-deer, amidſt a prodigious concourſe of people. He was conducted to the preſence of the king, to whom he gave himſelf out for a lapland prince: the people of the court made merry with him, and kept him generally drunk with wine and brandy. Under the ſame title he travelled into Germany, viſited the principal courts, and was ſeldom ſober. From Germany he proceeded to France, where, in one month, he learnt the french language, and received very handſome preſents from Lewis XIV. Thence he returned to Germany; and then traverſing Poland, he came into Ruſſia.

He had been only ſix weeks in St. Peterſburg, when he was able to expreſs himſelf with tolerable facility in the ruſſian language, even ſo as to preach in it before Peter the great, the archbiſhop of the province,

province, and the great officers of ſtate. The emperor beſtowed on him a yearly penſion of two hundred and fifty rubles, and ſent him to Aſtrakhan, in order to learn the tartarian language, which conſiſting of various dialects, is accordingly very difficult. He was actually maſter of it in a very ſhort time ſo as to ſpeak it fluently. But, living very looſely in Aſtrakhan, and being frequently ſeen lying aſleep in the ſtreets, drunk and ſenſeleſs; he was one day taken up by the Kalmuks, and privately conveyed out of town. On his being brought before the khan Ayuka, the khan ordered his crown to be ſhaven in the manner of the Kalmuks, had him dreſſed in the kalmuc faſhion, and gave him two wives, both of whom were ſoon pregnant by him. He had hardly been four weeks among theſe people, ere he not only underſtood them, but alſo in caſe of neceſſity would talk intelligibly to them. The Kalmuks gave him horſes, took him with them on their hunting-parties, lived, ate, and played with him, and had not the ſlighteſt idea that he would ever quit them. But as ſoon as he ſaw an opportunity, he made his eſcape, and returned to Aſtrakhan.

In this place he afterwards made himſelf maſter of the perſian, and the language of the ſubjects of the great Mongole; he alſo ſpoke the modern greek: but his diſſolute life, and his daily drunkenneſs, cut him off in the flower of his age.

Saxo Grammaticus, who flouriſhed about the cloſe of the twelfth century, is the firſt writer that

ſpeaks

ſpeaks of this country and its inhabitants; but, ſays M. de Voltaire, it was not till the ſixteenth century that we began to get any rude knowledge of Lapland, concerning which even the Ruſſians, the Danes, and the Swedes, had but very faint notions.

This vaſt country, bordering on the pole, had only been noticed by the antient geographers under the names of the country of the Cynocephali, of the Himantopodes, of the Troglodytes, and of the Pygmies. Indeed we have learnt from the accounts given by both ſwediſh and daniſh authors, that the race of Pygmies is by no means fabulous; for, that they had found them near the pole, in an idolatrous country, covered with mountains, rocks, and ſnow, and overrun with wolves, elks, bears, ermines, and rein-deers.

The Laplanders, (continues M. de Voltaire,) from the univerſal teſtimony of travellers, ſeem to have no relation to the Finns, from whom they are made to deſcend, nor from any of the neighbouring people. The men in Finnland, in Norway, in Sweden, in Ruſſia, are blonds, large and well made; Lapland produces none but men of three cubits in height, pale, ſwarthy, with ſhort, harſh, and black hair; the ſmallneſs of their head, their eyes, their ears, their noſe, their belly, their thighs, and their feet, diſtinguiſh them entirely from all the people that ſurround their deſerts.

They ſeem to be a particular ſpecies formed for the climate they inhabit, which they love, and which they

they alone could love. Nature, who has put rein-deer no where but in this country, ſeems to have produced the Laplanders there; and, as their rein-deer are not in being elſewhere, neither do the Laplanders appear to have come from any other country. It is not probable, that the inhabitants of a country leſs ſavage ſhould have forced their way over mountains and deſerts of ice, for the ſake of tranſplanting themſelves in regions ſo barren, and ſo dark, that it is impoſſible to ſee clearly for three months in the year, and where the inhabitants muſt be perpetually changing their ſtations, in order to find the means of ſubſiſtence. A family may be thrown by a tempeſt on a deſert iſle, and may people it; but it is not natural to quit habitations on the continent which produce ſome nouriſhment, to go and ſettle a great way off, upon rocks covered only with moſs, in a dreary region of inceſſant froſts, amidſt precipices of ice and ſnow, where there is no food but rein-deer's milk and dried fiſh, and debarred from all commerce with the reſt of the world.

Beſides, if the Finns, the Norwegians, the Ruſſians, the Swedes, the Icelanders, people as far to the north as the Laplanders, had emigrated to Lapland, would their figure have been abſolutely changed? It ſhould ſeem then that the Laplanders are a new ſpecies of men, who for the firſt time preſented themſelves to our view and our obſervations in the ſixteenth century, while Aſia and America offered to our ſight ſuch numbers of other people, of whom

we

we had no great knowledge. Thenceforward the ſphere of nature has enlarged itſelf on all hands to us, and it is therefore that Lapland is become an object truly worthy of our obſervation.

But to this it may be replied, that, if the natives of Lapland were of a different ſpecies from other men, we muſt admit the eternity of matter with the men born in different countries, and begotten by others, without being able, whatever retrogradations we might make, to diſcover their firſt generation, unleſs we have recourſe to the fiction of the poets, for a people

qui rupto robore nati,
Compoſitique luto, nullos habuere parentes.

The information contained in the writings of Moſes apparently ſhews that theſe ſyſtems, with thoſe that the antient philoſophers have invented, on the origin of the human ſpecies, are ſo many fond conceits and falſhoods.

The greateſt difficulty lies in knowing how the children of Adam and Eve, who were white, could poſſibly have given birth to black men. But this difficulty has been ſolved in the preliminary diſſertation to the Univerſal Hiſtory, and in that of M. de Maupertuis on the white negro. They prove that the difference and the diverſity of climate, a greater or leſs diſtance from the ſun, &c. have produced this effect; and it is what experience confirms, at leaſt by analogy.

2. The

2. The FINNS, in the ſtricter ſignification, were already known by this name to Tacitus, which has been preſerved by the geographers and hiſtorians of later times, though without any accurate knowledge of the people. Properly they were not again diſcovered till the year 1157, when the ſwediſh king Erik, the ſaint, undertook their ſubjugation and converſion. They call themſelves in their language Suoma-lainen, i. e. people who live in Moraſſes; and their country Suomen-Sari, which ſignifies a marſhy country with iſlands. Whence the name Finns aroſe is unknown *. By the Ruſſians they are denominated Fini, but more uſually Tſchuchontzi or Maimiſti, naſty people. The Ingrians, a particular deſcription of finniſh boors who have long dwelt amongſt the Ruſſians, and have adopted many of their cuſtoms with their language, as well as the greek religion, are ſtill called in ruſs Iſhorki, from the river Iſhora or Inger, from which Ingermanland or Ingria has its name. They live likewiſe in the neighbourhood of Valday and Beyetſk, and are generally of the lutheran communion.

The country which is inhabited by this nation compriſes the north-eaſtern corner of the Bothnic and Finniſh gulfs, interſperſed throughout with rocks, mountains, moraſſes, and lakes, between the 60th and 65th degrees of north latitude, its circumference being computed at thirty-thouſand verſts. The greater part of it belongs to the king-

* So ſays Schlœtzer. Georgi is of opinion that this is the gothic tranſlation of Suoma.

dom of Sweden; the ſmaller ſouth-eaſtern portion, poſſeſſed by Ruſſia, contains Ingermanland, Kexholm, and Karelia, forming the government of Vyborg, and part of that of St. Peterſburg.—That the Finns, in a very remote period, lived under their own kings, has been already ſeen, as well as that the Ruſſians very early got firm footing here, and formerly poſſeſſed far more than their preſent ſhare. In after-times theſe territories were again loſt; and Mikhaila Romanof ceded to Sweden the laſt ruſſian poſſeſſions in Finnland; but, by the treaties of Nieſtadt and Abo, Ruſſia got back the forementioned part of it.

In the government of Vyborg the Finns make by far the greater part of the inhabitants, or more properly they are the people of the country. In moſt of the circles of the Peterſburg-government, they, with the Ingrians, are likewiſe the main body of the population; and in the governments of Tver and Novgorod they form conſiderable colonies, which have long been ſettled in theſe regions. The number of all the Finns living in Ruſſia is not to be correctly aſcertained; but they probably exceed four hundred thouſand heads.—This people and the Laplanders are moreover the only two finniſh nations, whoſe lot has been caſt under ſeveral ſovereigns; all the other branches of this ſtock belonging excluſively to the ruſſian empire.

3. On the ſouthern coaſt of the gulf of Finnland, over againſt Finnland proper, dwell the Esthonians.

HONIANS. This name, of like import with orientals, is of german origin; many other nations of the Baltic bore it; by Tacitus and Caſſiodorus it is employed to denote the borderers on the Amberſtrands: at length, however, it was confined to deſignate the ſmall tract of the forementioned coaſt. The Eſthonians have no name for themſelves collectively, but ſupply that defect either by Maa Rahvaſt, people of the country; inhabitant (in the ſingular number, Maa Mees); or if they would ſpeak more particularly, Tarto Rahvaſt, Perno Rahvaſt, people of Dorpat, of Pernau, &c. * In the ruſſian annals, where they play a conſiderable part, as they, in common with the Novgorodian Slavi, founded the ruſſian ſtate, they are called Tſchudes. From them to this day the Peipus lake is called in ruſs Tſchudſkoie ozero, the Tſchudiſh lake.

That alſo this people, in the remoteſt times, belonged to the ruſſian monarchy, is beyond all doubt. During the inteſtine commotions with which the grand-princes had to contend among them, the Tſchudes indeed gradually ſucceeded in withdrawing themſelves from this ſovereignty; but, we alſo learn from hiſtory, that the ruſſian princes at ſeveral times found means to aſſert their right with vigour, and to compel the Eſthonians by force to acknowledge it. Thus, for example, Yaroſlaf found himſelf under the neceſſity of waging war upon the

* The Finns are called in the Eſthonian, Somè Rahvaſt, or Somlanè.

Tſchudes,

Tſchudes, and in the year 1030 to build Dorpat, (or Yurief, as the Ruſſians ſtill call that town,) that he might have a ſtrong place in the heart of their country, for the reception of the impoſts, and perhaps for keeping a garriſon in it. So Mſtiſlaf marched againſt the Tſchudes and Semgallians, on his reviving his demand of the tribute which they had been wont to pay: likewiſe in the annals of the neighbouring nations we find frequent evidence that no one ever doubted of the ſupremacy of the ruſſian princes over theſe countries.

The moſt remarkable of the cataſtrophes that befel the Eſthonians have already been noticed in the hiſtory of the Lettes. Since the year 1386, when Eſthonia was ſold to the Teutonic-order, it has formed a part of the livonian ſtate, with which, after a ſeparation of a hundred years, when it was under the dominion of Sweden, it again fell to the latter, and afterwards was united to the ruſſian territory. The antient duchy of Eſthonia forms, in the preſent conſtitution of the ruſſian empire, the government of Reval; not only this province, however, but alſo the greater part of Livonia, or five circles of the Riga-government, are inhabited by Eſthonians. Their numbers in the former government can only be probably computed at one hundred and eighty-thouſand; in the latter, by the laſt enumeration, were upwards of two hundred and fifty-ſeven thouſand heads. We ſhall certainly

therefore not be miſtaken in ſtating their total amount at four hundred and thirty thouſand.

4. The LIVONIANS are, by ſome antiquaries, claſſed as a peculiar nation of Finns, while by others they are comprehended among the Eſthonians *. The annaliſts Neſtor and Henry the Lette diſtinguiſh them as a ſeparate nation, and both agree in teſtifying, that in the very earlieſt periods they were among the tributary tribes to the ruſſian empire. At preſent they are only in ſmall remnants in two different places: in Courland on Angers-ſtrand, making a tract of ninety miles, where they conſiſt of about a hundred and fifty families, and in detached parts of the Riga-government. As divine ſervice is now performed among the remains of this people in the lettiſh language, their own is gradually going out; and perhaps by the end of the next century not a trace of the Livonians will be ſeen.

5. One of the moſt remarkable nations in the Finniſh hiſtory are the PERMIANS; or, as they are

* Schlœtzer takes them to be the remains of the primitive inhabitants of Livonia, or a branch of the Finns; but in this caſe it muſt be preſuppoſed that the finniſh nations were once in poſſeſſion of Lettland and Courland, and were driven out by the Lettes, when only this ſmall body of Livonians remained in the country. — Friebe, (in his hiſtory of Livonia, Eſthonia, and Courland,) from their language and way of living, judges them to be real Eſthonians, who have kept themſelves unmixed among the Lettes; which may eaſily have happened from the hatred entertained by the two nations againſt each other. Their dialect is purely eſthonian with ſome ſmall mixture of lettiſh.

called in the icelandic Reports, Biarmians, who are denominated by the Ruſſians Permiaki, and whoſe preſent homeſteads are in the governments of Perme and Viætka, and in the northern diſtricts of the river Oby. It ſhould ſeem that the ſcandinavian navigators in the middle ages gave the name of Biarmia to the whole country between the White-ſea and the Ural. The Permians on the Dvina were diſcovered in the ninth century by Othere of Halgoland, a province at the extremity of Norway, who afterwards entered into the ſervice of Ælfred the great, and drew up an account of this voyage in the anglo-ſaxon language. The icelandic reports are likewiſe full of theſe people.

According to theſe Reports the Permians on the White-ſea and the parts about the Dvina were the moſt wealthy, the moſt powerful, and moſt remarkable of all the northern Finns. Here the carved image of the god Yummala had its far-famed temple *, the deſcription of the magnificence whereof borders on the marvellous, and has been evidently drawn up by a rude but warm imagination. According to theſe deſcriptions the temple was very artfully built of coſtly wood, and ſo richly ornamented with gold and precious ſtones, that it threw a radiance round the whole circumjacent country. The image of the god had on a golden crown ſet with twelve precious ſtones; a necklace,

* Yummala is the univerſal deity of the Finns, as Perune was of the Slavonians and Lettes, and Othin or Odin of the Germans.

which in value amounted to three hundred marks in gold, and a dreſs which outweighed the lading of three of the richeſt ſhips that navigated the grecian ſea. Laſtly, the figure bore on its knees a golden chalice of ſuch capacity, that four men might quench their thirſt from its contents, and this veſſel was filled with the ſame valuable metal of which its maſs conſiſted. — The report of theſe extraordinary riches it was that tempted the northern freebooters to make armed expeditions to theſe diſtant parts and to quarrel with the natives; it was conſidered too as an honourable atchievement and an heroic adventure to have brought off ſome ſpoil from this temple. From Halgoland expeditions were made thither every year; even ſeveral norwegian kings went on predatory excurſions to Permia, and uſually returned with rich booty. We alſo find that ſcandinavian mariners viſited this country for the purpoſes of trade alone, and without any piratical views.

Suppoſing theſe fabulous deſcriptions of the magnificence of Yammula's temple, and the great wealth of the country to be not entirely deſtitute of all foundation, as we may with great probability, it then merits inquiry in what manner the permian Finns accumulated ſo much gold, and how their country became the mart of a great and lucrative commerce. In very remote ages the Permians were already famous for their trade with the Perſians and Indians. Theſe nations brought their commodities over the Caſpian, up the Volga and the Kama, to

Tſcherdyn, a trading town of antient date on the river Kolva; and the Permians tranſported theſe goods as well as their own products, along the Petſchora to the Frozen-ocean, where they bartered them with the people of thoſe parts againſt furs for their oriental trade. — The ruins of antient towns ſtill bear witneſs to the flouriſhing condition and the civilization of this people.

By the hiſtorical traces ſtill ſubſiſting, we perceive then that the Permians were the only race of the Finns who were a poliſhed and commercial people and known to other nations, while the reſt of their kindred tribes lay dormant in the deepeſt barbariſm. — The Reports likewiſe ſpeak of kings and a ſort of political conſtitution in Biarmeland. Many of theſe kings, if indeed their exiſtence were hiſtorically aſcertained, ſeem to have been, not natives, but ſcandinavian corſairs, as their names alſo intimate. Theſe at various times ſubdued as well the Finns as the Permians, and afterwards remained in theſe countries.

With the year 1217, the expeditions of the Norwegians to Permia ceaſe *; at an earlier period,

* Nearly about the ſame time, though ſomewhat earlier, the firſt incurſions of the Mongoles or Tartars into Ruſſia happened. That this circumſtance occaſioned the ſcandinavian pirates to abandon their predatory expeditions to Permia is by no means probable; for, beſides that a later event can never be the cauſe of an earlier, the depredations of the Mongoles were principally confined to the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, and it is nowhere to be ſeen that they penetrated even to Novgorod, much leſs ſo far as Permia.

however, and probably in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the republic of Novgorod made itſelf maſter of this country, ſending thither ruſſian colonies to keep the inhabitants in ſubjection. About the year 1372 the chriſtian faith was propagated in Permia by biſhop Stephen. At the cloſe of this, or the opening of the following century, a diſpute aroſe about the poſſeſſion of this country between the city of Novgorod and the grand-duke Vaſſilly Dmitrievitch, which at length was terminated by a compromiſe, in which it was agreed that the Novgorodians ſhould renounce all claim to it. The Permians now maintained for a length of time the liberty of chuſing their rulers from their own body. Tzar Ivan, in 1543, gave them the firſt viceroy, to whom the chief of the inhabitants were to act in a ſubordinate capacity in the affairs of government, and who had his ſeat firſt at Kolmogor, and afterwards at Archangel. — At preſent the whole of antient Biarmia, the borders whereof cannot now be accurately defined, is divided into ſeveral governments; and the deſcendants of the Permians, heretofore ſo famous, numerous, and powerful, are dwindled away to an inſignificant remainder, who, amidſt thorough Ruſſians, have loſt almoſt all their national characteriſtics, even to their very language.

6. Near and among the Permiaki dwell the SYRIÆNES, in the diſtrict of Uſtyug-veliko, in the governments of Vologda, of Perme, and Tobolſk.

Theſe

Theſe people call themſelves, as well as the Permians, Komi or Komi-Murt. Their language, which they have ſtill preſerved, much reſembles the permian, and is nearly related to that of the Finns; in religion, mode of life, and manners, they have approached ſo near to the Ruſſians, that they are ſcarcely any longer diſtinguiſhable. In the fourteenth century, they, together with the Permians, were brought to the chriſtian faith.

7. The VOGULES inhabit the weſtern and ſtill in a greater degree the eaſtern part of the northern Ural, and nomadiſe chiefly about the rivers which unite with the Irtyſh and the Oby to the Frozen-ocean, or with the Kama and the Volga into the Caſpian, therefore principally in the governments of Perme and Tobolſk: they call themſelves *Voguli, and are denominated by the Ruſſians Vogulitſchi. According to their traditions, their home has always been where they reſide at preſent: they came under the ruſſian ſovereignty previous to the conqueſt of Siberia, at which time they were ſo brave and warlike a nation as to give the Ruſſians ſome difficulty in reducing them to their obedience. For ſome time they were thought by the latter to be the ſame people with the Oſtiaks; documents however are in being, upwards of three hundred years old, in which

* According to M. Georgi they denominate themſelves Manſi.

they are ſpecified as a diſtinct nation*. All the ſtems of the Vogules, diſperſed in various diſtricts, taken collectively, compoſe a numerous nation; but accurate ſtatements of their population are not to be had. The Vogules nomadiſing in the circle of Tſcherdyn, in the government of Perme, amounted in the year 1783 to no more than a hundred and eleven perſons, compoſing nine families, and ſo nearly related in conſanguinity, that they were obliged to fetch women to be their wives from other races.

8. The VOTIAKS or Votes, upon the river Viætka, in the governments of Viætka and Ufa, call themſelves Ud or Udi (which ſeem to be the ſame with the ruſſian Voti), alſo Mord, i. e. Man or Udmord. Living but little intermixed with other people, their language continues to be a pure finniſh dialect. God is with them Yumar, and with the Finns Yummala. They have ſtill retained their old diſtribution into ſtems, and give their villages additional names accordingly; their noble families

* In the Steppennaia knigi, for example, we find the following paſſage: "In the year 7007 (1), the grand-duke Ivan Vaſſilievitch ſent his troops into the Ugorian country againſt the "Gogulitſches; and they went and took their towns and their "country, overcame their princes, made them priſoners, and "brought them to Moſkva. The reſt of the Ugres (2), and "Gogutitſches (3) they ſlew, &c."

(1) 1498.

(2) Yugrians, whence the Ural and the Yugrian mountains have their name.

(3) Vogulitſches.

are

are however partly extinct and partly mingled with the populace. They were formerly under tartar protection; but on changing their old maſters for the ruſſian ſovereignty, they alſo quitted their paſtoral life for the occupations of ſettled huſbandry, and turned their tents into permanent houſes. — Their number is not inconſiderable; in the government of Ufa there are about fifteen thouſand, and in that of Viætka thirty thouſand males.

9. The TSCHEREMISSES dwell in the government of Viætka, Kazan, Simbirſk, and Ufa, on both ſhores of the Volga, eſpecially the left. They call themſelves Mari, i. e. Men. Although their language be mixed with tartarian and ruſſian words, it is eaſily diſtinguiſhable as a finniſh dialect. The Supreme Being they call Yuma. — At the time of the Tartars they were ſubject to them, and dwelt more ſouthernly between the Volga and the Don; at the downfall of the tartarian dominion they fell to the ruſſian empire, and even in this ſtate they long retained their own khans, which, however, ceaſed upon the extinction of the princely race. They were formerly a paſtoral people; but, under the ruſſian government, they are gradually become huſbandmen. The preſent amount of them is not known; they have, however, been eſtimated at twenty-thouſand.

10. The TSCHUVASCHES, who alſo denote themſelves by that appellation, are a very numerous nation, paying the tax for more than two hundred thouſand heads.

heads. They reſide principally on both ſides of the Volga, and are in the governments of Tobolſk, Viætka, Niſhnè-novgorod, Kazan, Simbirſk, and Ufa. Their language at preſent borders more upon the tartarian than on that of the Finns; and therefore ſome hiſtorical inquirers will not even allow them to belong to that ſtock: nevertheleſs they have in their manners and cuſtoms a great ſimilarity with the generality of the Finns, particularly with the two laſt-mentioned nations, the Votiaks and Tſcheremiſſes. Theſe three tribes dwell together in villages, but never in towns; they are inured to agriculture, and have abandoned the nomadic way of life: they are fond of horſefleſh, are moſtly heathens, have inchanters among them, and a ſort of place for divine worſhip, which they denote by the generic term Keremet. At their meetings they ſacrifice a horſe, in which their principal religious ſolemnity conſiſts.

11. The MORDVINES are by the Ruſſians called Mordva, and dwell on the Oka and Volga, in the governments of Kazan, Niſhnè-novgorod, Ufa, Simbirſk, and Penſa. Though not ſo numerous as the Tſcheremiſſes and Tſchuvaſches, they are yet a very conſiderable nation, which has been found to increaſe on every ſucceſſive enumeration, and divide themſelves into two main ſtems, Mokſchan and Erſan; by which they are peculiarly named, though the general appellative of Mordva is not unuſual

unuſual even among themſelves. This nation, in the opinion of ſeveral ruſſian antiquarians, is the ſame which Neſtor mentions under the names of Meres or Merænes, on occaſion of the national confederacy entered into by the five ſlavonian and finniſh tribes on the lake Ilmen for the founding of the ruſſian ſtate, and who at that time inhabited the diſtricts of Roſtof, Halitſch, Koſtroma, and Yaroſlaf *.

12. The laſt nation of the Finns that remains for us to mention are the OSTIAKS OF THE OBY.—On the conqueſt of Siberia by the Tartars, they contemptuouſly called all the inhabitants of this extenſive country, of which, however, they knew but a ſmall part, Uſchtyæk, a word denoting a foreigner or barbarian. This denomination was at firſt retained by the Ruſſians from ignorance, and has ſince been loſt in proportion as the diverſity of the ſiberian nations has been detected. However there remain at preſent three very diſtinct people both in deſcent and language, the Oſtiaks of the Oby, of the Narym, and of the Yeniſſey. Only the firſt of theſe three tribes belong to the ſtock of Finns.—The Oſtiaks of the ſouthern Oby call themſelves Aſyaks, from the river Oby which in their language is called Yak; the northern, Khondi Khui, people of Konda, becauſe they withdrew from that river towards the north. Both ſtems dwell at preſent about the Oby and the Irtyſh, in

* See the article Ruſſians, and the note, p. 269.

the

the government of Tobolſk, and derive their origin from the Permians *, from whom they probably ſeparated to avoid biſhop Stephen's barbarous zeal for making converts. If this derivation were as certain as it is probable, from the ſimilitude of the languages, they muſt ſurely have had ſome weighty motive for quitting their mild and gentle ſky on the weſt ſide of the Ural for the inclement regions of the Oby.—The Oſtiaks of the Oby are held to be one of the moſt numerous of the ſiberian nations, but accurate ſtatements of their population are not known.

From the generality of theſe nations of Finns, but eſpecially from the Tſcheremiſſes, the Tſchuvaſches, and the Votiaks, a mongrel horde has ariſen, which has been increaſed by Tartars, and at preſent may be regarded as a peculiar tribe. The Ruſſians have given them the name of TEPTERI, a word originally tartarian, and denoting a man who cannot pay his taxes. The Tepteri were formed in the middle of the ſixteenth century, during the diſſolution of the kazan-tartarian empire, and eſtabliſhed themſelves at firſt in that part of the Ural-mountains which belongs to the government of Ufa. At preſent they are ſo much intermingled that their origin is ſcarcely diſcernible. They are found to be more numerous at every ſucceeding

* Their language comes neareſt to the permian, and next to that to the vogule.

cenſus;

cenſus; in the year 1762 about thirty-four thouſand of them paid the impoſts.

Of the Finlanders, Eſthonians, or Æſtiers, together with all the ſlavonian tribes, in thoſe times known only by the appellation of Sauromates, or northern Medes, of which nation they either were or pretended to be the deſcendants, as alſo of the Goths, the Romans ſcarcely knew any thing but the names. Norway (*Nerigon*), Sconen (*Scandia*), *Dunney*, and *Værœ* were, according to them, iſlands lying near the Frozen-ocean, as well as Thule, whither they uſed to ſail from Norway, as well as from the northernmoſt point of Scotland. Theſe obſcure notions of the Romans reſpecting the geography of the northern nations are conſequently alſo very incoherent, and of no manner of uſe.—Pliny expreſſes himſelf thus: Sunt qui et alias (inſulas) prodant, Scandiam, Dumnam, Bergos; maximamque omnium Nerigon, ex qua in Thulen navigetur. A Thule unius diei navigatione, mare concretum, a nonnullis Cronium appellatum. Lib. iv. cap. 16. It is evident, ſays Mr. Reinhold Forſter, that the whole coaſt is meant here; and though the learned Schlœtzer, whoſe information on theſe points is univerſally reſpected, in his "Introduction to the univerſal hiſtory of the north," an excellent work, chooſes to underſtand by Bergos one of the two ſons of Hercules mentioned by Pomponius Mela, viz. Albion and Bergion, who gave the names of Albion and Bergion (or Ουιέρνα, Juverna,

Juverna, Hibernia) to the britiſh iſlands; yet I cannot perſuade myſelf to take it in this light, as it ſeems more probable to me that the appellations of Dumna and Bergos belonged to the iſlands Dumnæ or Dumney near Halgoland, and Vœrœ near Malſtrom, for the continued ſeries in which theſe countries are diſpoſed ſeems to render this ſuppoſition in a manner neceſſary. For the ſame reaſon, I ſhould never think of looking for Thule in Iceland, but rather in Shetland.

THE ESTHES or ESTHONIANS, in the lettiſh language IGGAUNIS, have ever been the moſt extenſive and the moſt populous nation of Liefland; who, beſides Eſthonia properly ſo called, inhabited the diſtricts of Dorpat and Pernau, and ſtill maintain their ſettlement in them to this day. They even made frequent attempts to get firm footing in Lettland; but they were as often repulſed by the Teutonic order of knights, under their maſter Volquin, who repeatedly drove them back to their antient ſeats. Their language, manners, bodily figure, houſes, methods of huſbandry, are ſo many incontrovertible proofs of their relationſhip to the Finns; whom M. Schlœtzer juſtly pronounces to be one of the moſt far-ſpread nations of the globe, inhabiting, from the ſhores of the Baltic, to regions deeply ſituated in Aſia. It is therefore no wonder that ſome Livonians have found nations in the heart of Ruſſia, whoſe ſpeech, by the help of ſome acquaintance

ance with the Eſthonian, they could partly underſtand; ſince the Finns, the Laplanders, the Eſthonians, Livonians, Permians, Syranes, Ingrians, Votiaks, Tſchuvaſhes, Tſcheremiſſes, Mordvines, and others, are deſcribed as nations of one common pedigree. The Eſthonians are the Tſchudi; from which appellation perhaps is derived the word Tchuchna, ſtill uſed by the Ruſſians to expreſs a liefland boor.

Their converſion, or more properly their compulſion, coſt the Germans much labour. Accuſtomed to war, to piracy, and to liberty, they long diſdained and reſiſted their inſolent authority. Some ſparks of that martial ſpirit, now almoſt extinct, ſhew themſelves, however, at times, in their fits of ebriety and revenge; and a relict perhaps of their old diſpoſition to piracies and hoſtile attacks on the neighbouring provinces may be ſeen in their preſent propenſity to theft.

Great wiſdom is not to be looked for among folks entirely occupied in the affairs of agriculture, paſturage, and fiſhing. Neither the eſthonian nor the lettiſh languages have as yet been unfolded and enriched by art or ſcience; they are greatly deficient, eſpecially the eſthonian, in particular expreſſions; ſo that it muſt often be a difficult taſk to a village-preacher, to publiſh an edict in a faithful tranſlation, or to deliver a dogmatical diſcourſe to his pariſhioners, unleſs he be peculiarly endowed with the grace of condeſcenſion. Many a boor would accept of freedom with heartfelt gratitude; but

but neither gratitude nor freedom can the Eſthonian expreſs in his language; no more than he can exiſtence, duration, ſpace, and other abſtracted ideas. Among them are found perſons of great ſimplicity, eſpecially ſuch as live apart in the foreſts: the greater part are artful, (the Eſthonian more than the Lette,) eaſily comprehend a propoſition not lying too far beyond their ſphere, and frequently diſcover unexpected capacities only waiting for an occaſion to call them forth. Thoſe on the ſea-coaſt have always been able ſeamen, who, without previous inſtruction, venture far out to ſea, in veſſels of wretched conſtruction. In a ſhort ſpace of time, often within the compaſs of three or four weeks, they learn to read, and are dexterous in ſtealing an art from the german mechanics; accordingly we find among them goldſmiths, ſhip-builders, tanners, expert cooks, huntſmen, &c. Under the ſwediſh government, when the country was rouſed to ſupport the feudal banner, they were uſeful ſoldiers. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, according to the current report, a boor of the diſtrict of Dorpat raiſed of himſelf a regiment, and ſignalized himſelf ſo much at the head of it, that he received a patent of nobility, with a haak of land, as the reward of his generoſity and valour. Several have obtained baronies and military rank for their ſervices in war; or, having ſucceſsfully applied themſelves to the ſciences, have been put into various offices: perſons of great conſideration

are

are now living, whoſe fathers or grandfathers were alienable boors. Very few lords will allow their boors to learn to write; fearing perhaps they may abuſe that talent: they might be tempted to forge a paſsport or letters of emancipation. Some therefore teach themſelves to write, without any help from others; and even under the total want of that art, they can keep, in a moſt ſurpriſing manner, long accounts of a hundred various matters, on ſticks or tallies. About things of which they do not directly ſee the utility, they ſeldom give themſelves any concern; and what they do not comprehend they admire but coldly. Children that are early become orphans ſcarcely know, at the age of twenty, the names of their parents. It is too much the cuſtom for ſchool-boys to offer their paſtor ſome flax, butter, or honey, to let them ſoon out of ſchool, and not force them to learn to read; to which end they are likewiſe very apt to feign all ſorts of infirmities, ſuch as hardneſs of hearing, dimneſs of ſight, weak memories, &c. but eſpecially of pretending to have a great fall or a blow on the head. Theſe and the like pretexts, however, become leſs frequent from day to day by the preſent ſcholaſtic inſtitutions, and will entirely be removed when there is a ſchool in every village, or every farm ſhall inſtruct its own children. To ſend little children four or five miles off to ſchool with their proviſions in their pouch, is too much for the poor vaſſal, who has ſcarcely the means for finding them

in neceſſary clothes; grown up lads have no time to ſpare for ſchool, and would get the worſe for ſitting ſtill, to which they are not accuſtomed. A knowledge of the moral duties of religion, ſuited to their capacities, is ſoon obtained by old and young; yet however it be, ſcarcely two in a thouſand can tell whether they be chriſtians or not; unleſs it ariſes from this, that they are taught to conceive of religion as ſomething different from the leading a good life. The proverb in uſe among them, "He knows "not what faith he is of," does not merely imply a completely ſtupid fellow; for they would all reply that they are of the country-faith, or of the pariſh-faith. Thoſe who live among the Ruſſians, on the borders, frequently adopt their domeſtic and eccleſiaſtical uſages from them.

In Eſthonia are a great many large villages, ſome containing from forty to ſeventy little clans; and with the ſtragglers may amount to a hundred diſtinct houſeholds: moſt of the Lettes live ſeparate. Even the Eſthonians at times ſhew a hankering after this primitive way of life, by which they are not expoſed to the inconvenience of keeping every one his own cow-herd, and at leaſt an old woman to look after the houſekeeping; on the contrary they are leſs confined, have fields, meadows, and paſtures near them, and ſuffer no damage from their neighbour's cattle. They have a particular affection to the woody diſtricts, both for the ſake of having a ſupply of firewood at hand, and an opportunity of clearing

clearing new fields whenever they pleaſe. One of theſe ſtragglers, or hedge-boors as they are called, will not eaſily be perſuaded to come and live in a village at a diſtance from a foreſt, though offered a far more fertile ſoil to cultivate, becauſe there they can unobſerved be continually laying out new ground in corn and hay fields, without paying any thing for them. Inferior landlords, who exact but little work from ſuch people, run the riſk of ſoon perceiving a want of ſtewards; and there have been inſtances of their letting the eſtate go to ruin, or even ſetting their houſes on fire, in order to have a pretence for turning ſtraggler and enjoying the conveniences attending that way of life. For in that caſe they only work two days in the week at moſt for their lord; the reſt of their time is ſpent in idleneſs, or in working for their own profit: but in general they will only work when pinched by hunger, and the ſteward muſt give them, for ſmall ſervice, a piece of copſe, beſide finding them in meat and corn. To impoſe much work on the ſtraggler ſeems, on the other hand, very cruel, as he has no land from the manor, and muſt maintain himſelf and his children by his own labour. They and their children are ſometimes ſold, or bartered againſt other things, horſes, dogs, tobacco-pipe heads, in which the gentry here are very curious, as far as a hundred rubles being often given for one. A man here will not fetch ſo much money as a negro in the Weſt-Indies: one buys a fellow here for thirty to fifty rubles; if he underſtand any

buſineſs, ſhoemaker, taylor, cook, weaver, &c. he may ſell for a hundred rubles; you will pay about the ſame rate for a whole clan, one with another, the parents with the children; for a ſtout girl ſeldom more than ten, and for a child it may be four rubles.

Whether the proper names that appear in their old chronicles be the appellatives of entire caſts or races, or of individuals, I cannot take upon me to determine. The fondneſs that many boors have for naming themſelves after the piece of ground poſſeſſed by their forefathers for a long time, or at leaſt to retain the father's name, ſeems to favour the ſuppoſition, that a kind of family-name was not formerly quite unknown to them: perhaps, if it were of any conſquence, we might find them again in the names of different villages and farms, from which, as well as from animals, &c. they ſeem to to be borrowed. Proper family-names, as we now bear them, nobody will expect to find in Livonia earlier than the twelfth-century. At preſent the baptiſmal name always ſtands laſt; that of the farm, the father or the landlord firſt: for example; an Eſthonian of the name Mik, living at a place called Mutta, calls himſelf Mutta Mik; his ſon bears the name Mutta Mikko Pong *, and his ſon, Mutto Mikko Pong Rein; and ſo his daughter, ſervant, ſtep-ſon, &c. The vaſſals change their name with every new landlord, or call themſelves after

* Son.

their

their fathers. Even a farm-holder muſt change his name whenever another plot of ground is given him to cultivate, unleſs he receive expreſs permiſſion from his lord to retain the old, or his father's name. Vaſſals that are made free commonly take a family-name, borrowed from their former place, or their father's: for inſtance; Hans, the ſon of Hunti Laur, is made free. He now aſſumes the name Hans Hunt; or, becauſe the latter word ſignifies Wolf, Hans Wolff, or Hans Laurſon. Their uſual chriſtian names, among others, are:

	Eſthniſh.	Lettiſh.
Adam	Adam, Ado, Oado	Adam
Agnes	Neto	
Anthony	Tœnnis, Tœnno, Tœns	Antins
Anne	An, Anno	An
Barbara	Warbo, Papo	Babbe, Babba, Barbel
Bartholomew	Pærtel, Pert, Pero	Behrtuls, Behrtmeis
Brigit	Pirrit	Birte, Brihte
Daniel	Tanni	
Dorothy	Tio	Dahrte
Elizabeth	Ello, Els, Liſo	Ilſe, Lihs
Eve	Eva	Yeva
George	Yurri	Yirri, Yurris
Gertrude	Kert, Truto	Geddo, Gehrte
Hedwig	Edo	Edde
Hellen	Leno	Lena
Henry	Hin, Hinno, Hinrik	Indriks
Jacob	Yakob, Yaak, Yoak	Yehkobs, Yahks
John	Yaan, Yoan, Yuhan, Hans	Anſis, Antzis
Katharine	Kai, Kaddri, Trino	Katrihn, Trihne, Katſha
Charles	Kaarl, Karel	Karl

	Eſthniſh.	Lettiſh.
Magdalene	Madli, Madle, Mal	Magdalena, Lena
Mary	Mai, Marri, Marret	Marri
Margaret	Kreet, Krœœt	Kret, Mahrgeet
Peter	Peter, Peet, Peeto	Peet, Peter
Sibyl	Pil	Bille.

The maſculine appellatives, Koort, Pell, Kæært, Tin; and the feminine Kell, and one very common in ſome places, Eile, in Eſthonia; and the Lettiſh, Laſhe, Ebb, which ſome interpret by Lucia and Ebertina, I do not preſume to tranſlate.

Rich boors would be ſought for here in vain. Such as (in ſecret) poſſeſs a few hundred rubles in hard caſh, with moveables to the value of a hundred or two more, are here and there to be found; they even ſometimes are worth more than their maſters; but then they muſt not let it be known. Some have juſt enough to ſatisfy the firſt wants of life; but ſtill more are poor. Formerly they were all much better provided. Among the Lettes, the landed property is not divided into ſmall eſtates, but remains in the hands of a few overgrown nobles, who, living in great opulence, neglect to look after the management of their country poſſeſſions, ſo that the produce of them does not amount to one third of what, with moderate attention and care, they might, to the great detriment of the proprietor himſelf, to the ſtate at large, and to the poor peaſants, who, though for the moſt part, more induſtrious than the Eſthonians, are generally in the extremeſt poverty. The latter neither want land nor an opportunity

portunity of making money, if they have but time and inclination. The day-labourer, all the winter through, can earn his ten kopeeks, and even more, by cutting wood and other employments, and in harveſt time may get weekly a couple of buſhels of corn. The foreſts, the breeding of cattle, the towns, the manor-houſes, the chace, and agriculture, furniſh them with opportunities enough for earning ſomething. Only by ſpinning for pay, the females find but little advantage; and yet in winter there is ſcarcely any thing elſe for them to do: in the worſt parts of the country they grow as much flax as will keep them in work during the whole of the long winter. The Eſthonian has often been reproached with lazineſs: charity might lead us to ſuppoſe that bondage and oppreſſion may have an influence on him, as well as on the Lettes; but he ſhews it even when working for himſelf: perhaps his feudal ſervice habituates him to it. And yet, both in town and country, there are great numbers who ſhew themſelves induſtrious, and purſue their own benefit with activity and diligence. The failure of a crop, diſeaſes among the cattle and horſes, ſoon reduce a boor to poverty; whom all the aſſiſtance he can get from the manorial meſſuage will not reſtore to his former condition. A man may have two horſes and a few cows, and yet be very poor. How wretched are even they who are called landlords, or hoſts, of the farm, who have nothing but a horſe lent them from the manor!

Creditable boors poſſeſs, according to the quantity of their ground, from five to ten horſes, and a herd of between thirty and forty head of horned cattle. Both poor and rich eat chaff-bread, that is, without ſeparating the chaff from the rye; after threſhing, they grind and bake them both together. In thoſe parts of the country where the ungrateful ſoil rewards the labourer with but a ſorry crop, or the arable land is allotted the people in too great a diſproportion, both the Lettonians and the Eſthonians feed on the vileſt bread imaginable, fit for nothing but to burn, for it takes fire immediately on application to it: it is only on holidays that they bake a little bread of wheat or cleanſed rye, but never bolted. When their ſpirits and their pride are elated by ſtrong liquors, or ſometimes when they have a good-natured maſter, they are apt to betray their property, which at all other times they do what they can to conceal, leſt their work ſhould be increaſed, or, after their death, an unwelcome hæres univerſalis ab inteſtato ſhould come in for at leaſt an equal ſhare with their children, which, it is to be hoped, does not frequently happen in our enlightened days.

None of the people here are comparable to the german peaſants in muſcular force, particularly as to lifting or carrying burdens, which, perhaps, may be owing to their habits of lazineſs, and their miſerable diet. But they will hold out in great labours ſurpriſingly; they bear viciſſitudes of cold, heat,

heat, and continued wet, that would kill an Engliſhman or a German, and do a great deal of work, with little ſleep. Their climate, their hard manner of life, together with early habitude, may contribute much to this, but eſpecially their hot-baths, in which practice they run out of the extremes of heat, ſtark naked, into the open air, in ſummer plunging into a river, and in winter rolling themſelves in the ſnow. Rheums, defluxions, colds, tooth-achs, ear-achs, &c. are but rarely heard of among them. With good-living their bodies ſoon get a ſort of plumpneſs; but a truly fat man would be a ſtrange ſight indeed. Their ſtature is rather under than over the common ſize, and many of the women are unuſually ſhort. A tall fellow is ſometimes to be met with.

Some authors deny them to poſſeſs either virtue or conſcience, chiefly becauſe they have no word in their language to denote them. But this is a manifeſt exaggeration. It is true the Eſthonian, as well as the Lette, terms conſcience, by a periphraſis, the teſtimony of the heart; and virtue he expreſſes by good actions: but, for love, pity, patience, placability, gentleneſs, forbearance, and the like, they have their own proper terms. As in all other countries, there are very honeſt worthy people, among ſome that are otherwiſe: but even the predominant paſſions ſeem here to require a certain ſort of indulgence, when we take ſervitude, ill-uſage, oppreſſion, and a want of education into the account.

account. The following ſtatement, however, is, unhappily, but too true.

Both Eſthonians and Lettonians, though not without numerous exceptions, are apt to indulge in inflammatory liquors. Without beer and brandy no pleaſure. Intemperance is a prevailing vice, whatever indigence and miſery it may coſt them. Old and young, huſband and wife, are ſeen carouſing in their families, and drunk in the krougs; only girls and ſome young women are exempt from this charge: the aged drink hard, and continually ſmoke tobacco. Neither remonſtrances nor woful experience can moderate this propenſity; they only ſleep away the fumes of liquor in order to intoxicate themſelves afreſh; even ſucklings muſt taſte of the glaſs as often as the mother drinks.

A conſiderable part of their pleaſure conſiſts in ſinging and muſic. The former ſeems peculiar to the females; at weddings they have even profeſſed ſingers brought for the purpoſe; yet the men join in the tune as ſoon as the bottle has excited them to merriment. At their work in the field, at their play, the girls are always ſinging. Some have good voices and great natural talents; but the Eſthonians more than the Lettonians. The former ſing only in one key, but commonly in two parts; ſo that every line ſung by one band is repeated by the other. They have a great variety of ballads and tunes. In ſeveral of their nuptial ſongs they annex to every line the two words, Kaſſikè, Kanikè; which

which perhaps at preſent are void of meaning, though formerly they may have been expreſſions of tenderneſs. The Lettonians lengthen out the laſt ſyllable to a great extent, and ſing commonly in duets, one of them grunting out a ſort of baſs. The moſt uſual and probably a very antient muſical inſtrument with both nations is the bag-pipes, which they themſelves make, and ſound in proper time, in two keys, with great dexterity. M. Arndt has endeavoured to explain the eſthonian name of this inſtrument, torropil, though perhaps with not very great ſucceſs. Every kroug, where gueſts are invited by the ſound of this charming inſtrument, is ſure to be much frequented, eſpecially on holidays. The miſerable horizontal harp, and the fiddle, which the Lettes are extremely fond of at all their feſtivals, were firſt introduced among them by the Germans.

In their dances the couples conſiſt of old and young, frequently man with man, and woman with woman; one couple following quite cloſe at the heels of the other, ſo as to allow of but few variations. The Eſthonians keep always a $\frac{3}{4}$ or a $\frac{3}{8}$ time, make ſhort ſliding ſteps, and at the third ſtamp rather harder on the ground. The lettonian dance is ſomewhat different, and more like an artleſs Polonoiſe; they have alſo a ſpecies of country-dances.

As the Ruſſians, ſo the Eſthonians and Lettonians, eſpecially the younger ſort, place the ſwing among their favourite ſummer-paſtimes. At almoſt every

every village, and at every kroug, ſtands this machine, on which one or two couple divert themſelves at a time; which diverſion is in high vogue at Eaſter.

The exerciſe of ſwimming, ſo much recommended by Rouſſeau, is here the general amuſement in hot weather; all ages and ſexes take to the water like ſo many amphibious animals: but it coſts many of them their lives, chiefly by going in when drunk.

All the boors, without exception, are paſſionately fond of ſcalding-hot baths, where they once at leaſt in every week cleanſe their bodies; a practice in many reſpects of great ſervice to them, from their hard and dirty manner of living. In the midſt of the moſt profuſe perſpiration, with the ſweat ſtreaming down their limbs, they go out and ſit to cool themſelves in the moſt intenſe cold, rubbing their bodies with ſnow, without feeling any bad conſequences from it. While in the act of bathing, they ejaculate all ſorts of pious wiſhes, ſuch as, God cleanſe me from all my ſins, as I am now cleanſing my ſinful body, &c. then thank one another for the good waſhing, for the heating of the bath, and for the fetching of the water.

Infidelity towards their maſters, diſtruſt, a diſpoſition to cheat and to ſteal, frequent elopements, and the like, are their ordinary vices, and certainly take their riſe from the ſlavery in which they are held. They rarely rob one another; if any one is known to do ſo, he is held in abhorrence by his brethren; but

but ſo much the more ingenious are they in deviſing means to impoſe upon their maſters; and in general all Germans. The bolts, haſps, latches, rings, hinges, and matters of this nature, are all ſtole from the yards and outhouſes of the manor-houſe; let them be renewed as often as they may, ten overſeers would not be able to prevent it. The caſks of brandy which they convey to town, they have the art of tapping cunningly under the hoops, without touching the ſeal with which they are thought to be ſecured, and of introducing water to make good the deficiency. But, as they always carry a ſealed ſample of the ſtrength of the brandy, they would preſently be betrayed, if they did not know how to evaporate a part of the vinous ſpirit by the dexterous application of heat and cold. They make the corn-ſacks pay toll in like manner, and then throw water upon them, or contrive to make a hole in the bottoms or ſides ſo as to have all the appearance of being fretted in the carriage. They ſeldom ſell their hops, but the buyer finds to his coſt that they have been adulterated by a mixture of bad wild hops, ſand, &c.

They have frequently riſen in rebellion againſt their maſters. In the year 1345 they roſe in Harrien, and in 1560 in the Viek; the ſame thing has happened in later times. Some years ago great numbers of them aſſembled, with the moſt blood-thirſty intentions, under a leader, who taught them from the ſcriptures that all ſlavery was aboliſhed by

by the law of the goſpel; and, ſeduced by falſe rumours, artfully ſpread among them, a number of Lettonians were very lately incited to commit great outrages. Some have been even known to wiſh for hoſtile invaſions of their country, in order that they might mingle with the enemy and ſatisfy their vengeance. At times a lord or a ſteward is cruelly murdered. Examples are not wanting of their having carried complaints againſt their maſters, even to the ſupreme tribunals; and of their having brought them to legal puniſhment. Yet the generality of them are devoted with the ſincereſt eſteem and affection to their kind and humane maſters, and are enemies to all reſiſtance. In their revenge, even among themſelves, they know no bounds; committing a murder with the greateſt coolneſs and indifference, which they otherwiſe hold to be the moſt heinous of crimes.

Lying, curſing, and ſwearing are very current among them, endeavouring to make the moſt manifeſt falſehood paſs for truth, by ſuch dreadful imprecations, as, Let me periſh! May I be ſtruck blind! May God ſhower his judgments on my fields and cattle! which are as common a phraſeology with them as with the Greeks; and in ſimilar terms they expreſs their averſion towards others. At the ſame time they appear to have a great reverence for judicial oaths; relating numerous inſtances of the viſible judgments that follow perjury. How much ought their ſuperiors to encourage and cheriſh theſe ſentiments for enforcing a ſtrict adherence to truth!

Whenever a lord attempts to perſuade or to bribe his boors to give a falſe oath, nothing is afterwards ſacred to them; even his perſon as well as his property are thenceforward in danger.

It will be neceſſary now to ſay ſomewhat of their religion. Even in Livonia it has undergone ſome alterations. The antient inhabitants of theſe countries were heathens; ſeveral ſuperſtitious cuſtoms, not yet entirely eradicated, and ſome monuments ſtill remaining are relicts of their antient worſhip. Of their ſuperſtitions but little need be ſaid; the ſubject would neither improve nor entertain us. One inſtance may ſuffice. Even the better educated boor cannot, without much pains and inward conflicts, ſuffer any ſpinning to be done in his houſe on Thurſdays for fear leſt the ſheep ſhould not thrive, or ſhould die of the rot: though, on being told that, when they have been obliged to ſpin on that day at the lordſhip, no harm has happened there to the ſheep, they are ready enough to acknowledge that it is an idle notion. Some pretend that this fooliſh obſervance of Thurſday took its riſe from the nonſenſe of one of their brethren, who, in the year 1563 taught them to hallow that day, becauſe God, on account of ſome aſſiſtance he had received on a Thurſday, enjoined it to be obſerved inſtead of Sunday. The truth of the ſtory muſt be admitted on the teſtimony of the hiſtorian Kelch: but it gives no ſufficient reaſon for the particular abhorrence of ſpinning, as they do every other kind of work on

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that day. The cuſtom ſeems rather to have been kept up as a relict of paganiſm, and the more ſo, as the above-mentioned uncommiſſioned preacher found no very general acceptance with his brethren. Neither is the ſtory any proof of the peculiar ſtupidity of this people. More enlightened nations have adopted as articles of faith doctrines to the full as incomprehenſible.

Kelch and others mention ſome of their deities by name; but we ſhould cautiouſly examine their accounts before we give credit to them. The firſt converters of the Livonians were but little acquainted with the language of the people. They thought themſelves juſtified in deſcribing their pagan worſhip from its moſt odious ſide, and even with pious exaggerations; in order to give a pretext to the force that was uſed in theſe converſions, and to exalt their own merits, they heſitated at nothing. They charged the unconverted with all kinds of abominations, and particularly with polytheiſm: however, it has never been thoroughly proved. The Yummal of the Eſthonians, under which name they ſtill, in common with the Finns, the Laplanders, &c. worſhip the true God, might be known by more than one appellation, as we may well believe if we but bring our reflections a little homeward; or what is related of their other deities, as Thor, &c. was perhaps no more than various kinds of homage they thought due to inferior deities, or to the memory of heroes that had ariſen among them. The livonian paganiſm

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is affirmed to be perfectly ſimilar with that of the Celts and the antient Germans. Of theſe it is well known that they had no temples, but even deſtroyed them wherever they were found, becauſe they eſteemed the great ruling ſpirit of heaven and earth, whom they held to be one only God though they adored him under various names, too great and too exalted to dwell within walls, and to be incloſed in human ſtructures. Their religious rites they performed in the open fields, on the top of a mountain, by the ſide of a ſpring, or under the ſhade of a tree: ſuch places were ſacred. They believed in inferior deities, to whoſe government and care certain regions were allotted; they ſcrupulouſly avoided to offend, eſpecially in the ſacred places, theſe ſubordinate divinities, whom they imagined to delight chiefly in fire and water, as two beneficent elements, and therefore they threw into them bread, wax, and other offerings, as tokens of their veneration. In their groves they nouriſhed a ſacred fire. To ſpeak of the marriage and the birth of gods, they held to be indecent, and conſequently were unacquainted with female deities. They had a god, Thor, to whoſe influence they attributed all aërial phænomena. Statues they had properly none; nevertheleſs ſome are found among them which they probably borrowed from foreigners and their religion. — Of facts ſo notorious from the hiſtories both of the Celts and the Germans, no man will expect particular proofs. Let us then return

to the Lieflanders, amongſt whom we find all theſe religious obſervances, even to the minuteſt article; and the ſame celtic and german god Thor adored as a patron in military exploits. It may reaſonably be affirmed, that the Lieflanders, as in the whole of their religion, ſo chiefly in its firſt principle, the unity of God (which they held from mere tradition, without any more immediate revelation, though M. Jeruſalem, Dr. Leland, and others abſolutely deny it to be held by any heathen nation) had a perfect reſemblance with the Celts and Germans: that all their ſuppoſed plurality of Gods were but ſeveral names for the only Potentate, or were ſubordinate deities inveſted with amiable or formidable qualities, and held up to the admiration or the terror of mankind, or in order to preſerve the remembrance of eminently beneficent perſons; hence perhaps we may derive the origin of the tales invented by a holy zeal concerning their female deities. Among the Eſthonians we can find no intimations built on ſure grounds of the latter ſort, and in general but few names of deities. With the Lettes they are more numerous, but that they denoted ſo many really diſtinct ſuperior beings, it would be no eaſy taſk to prove. What I have been able to collect with any certainty concerning their nature, offices, rites, and repreſentations, I ſhall here ſubjoin.

Mahjaſkungs and Zeemniks ſeem to have been a kind of penates or houſehold gods; the latter particularly preſided over vaſſals and cattle, for which

reaſon they ſacrificed in both kinds to him in autumn. Lulkis, likewiſe a kind of ſpiritus familiaris. Meehra Deeus, or Meſha Deeus, the god of wild beaſts, particularly wolves. Puſhkeis, the god of foreſts. Pilniits, the god of plenty. Auſkuhts, the god of health and ſickneſs, chiefly worſhipped by the Lithuanians. Veitzgants *, the patron of betrothed perſons, particularly the bride. Gahrdehdis, the fiſherman's god. They alſo reckon up a few goddeſſes: Deevekla, generally called, by way of eminence, the goddeſs, contractedly Dehkla; who, it ſeems, was the tutelary deity of women in childbirth, by whoſe benign influences the new-born babes were lulled aſleep and made to thrive. Others aſcribe theſe effects to a Tikkla or Tiklis, while to Dehkla †, they conſigned the care of the children at the breaſt. Laima was the goddeſs that preſided over pregnant women; and Mahte was in general the childrens' goddeſs, known under ſeveral epithets; among others Peena Mahte, for whom they kept the domeſtic ſnakes, which they carefully fed with milk; and even to this day, in ſome houſes, eſpecially among the vulgar, the ſuperſtition is ſtill retained of dreading to drive the houſe-ſnakes out of doors.

Of the places and groves where the antient Lieflanders, as well Eſthonians as Lettonians, were wont to perform the holy rites of paganiſm, many,

* From van veitzaks, it ſucceeds well.

† From the lettiſh word deht, to ſuck.

notwithſtanding the ſtrict orders that have been iſſued for their demolition, are ſtill in being, towards which they conſtantly teſtify an awful reverence. None chooſe to approach them, nor ever venture to cut a bough from a ſacred tree, or even to pluck a ſtrawberry that grows beneath its ſhade. If a German, out of wantonneſs or zeal, does an injury to theſe trees by cutting or breaking them, they ſhudder with the certain expectation of ſome impending judgment. Some of theſe ſacred places are diſtinguiſhable by one, others by ſeveral (moſtly oak) trees; on hills, in plains, or near a ſpring. Boors that are not deterred by the fear of diſcovery, and the penalties annexed to it, wiſh to be privately buried in theſe places; ſome of which perhaps originally owed their conſequence, not merely to religious rites performed there, but to the event of ſome league or treaty concluded at them; and afterwards, by an eaſy tranſition among unlettered people, were conſidered as ſacred and inviolable. Rouſſeau has ſomewhere judiciouſly obſerved from antient hiſtory, that it was cuſtomary not only to take the gods to witneſs the covenant, but to make choice of certain ſtones, hills, and trees as memorials of the tranſaction. Inſtances of this cuſtom are to be met with in the books of Moſes and the chronicles of the Jews. The ſentiment that the inferior deity, who delights to dwell in this ſpot, will revenge the violation of a monument marked out for calling to the minds of men the engagements they

they have mutually entered into in the preſence of their god, is of wonderful efficacy with rude and uncivilized people. Superſtitiouſly to viſit and revere all ſuch hallowed groves is ſtrictly forbidden: but faith ſuffers no reſtraint; and inveterate prejudice triumphs over reaſon. Several barons have commanded their boors to go and cut down ſuch trees; but neither threats nor perſuaſions would prevail till they inſpired the awe-ſtruck vaſſals with courage, by taking the axe into their own hands.

Offerings of wool, wax, yarn, bread, &c. are ſtill in uſe among them, by laying them on the holy places, or cramming them in the hollows of the aged trees. Springs and rivers likewiſe have their ſhare of theſe unbloody ſacrifices. But, eſpecially when any ſudden eruption or ulcer appears on their body, they ſay, it comes from ſuch a place, or properly from the earth; they therefore go to the place where they have laſt ſat down, or ſlept, or drank, and according to their opinion, got the harm: there they ſcrape ſome particles of ſilver from a ruble, or from the neck or breaſt ornaments of their wives; and then, as nature commonly ſoon relieves herſelf, they take him to be a very ſilly man who ſhould doubt of the efficacy of the ſilver-ſcrapings. This may be conſidered as a propitiatory offering to the deity of the place. At their ſecret idolatrous aſſemblies, the keeping up of the fire, into which they throw all ſorts of offerings, is ſtill a principal obſervance.

If it be true that the Celts paid no regard to ſtatues and idols as neceſſary appurtenances of their worſhip, yet they were not altogether unacquainted with them; whether they borrowed them from other nations, or adopted them in ſome places as the inventions of ingenious perſons. In Lifland too they had idols, though perhaps in no great number. Kelch deſcribes one that they worſhipped under the figure of a crowned man; which muſt have been of a pretty large ſize, as they uſed to depoſit their offerings in a bowl fixed on his lap. In the library belonging to the Olai church at Reval, among other curioſities, is ſtill preſerved a liefland idol of the heatheniſh times, and is about four inches in height. As there were then no eminent artiſts in Liefland, the form given to this figure but poorly expreſſes that of a man: perhaps they were made merely in memory of their heroes.

We likewiſe find ſome few altars ſtill remaining; probably a ſort of table for offerings: however I ſhall not preſume to ſtate their peculiar deſtination. One is yet ſtanding in the Oberpalſchen, near the lordſhip of Kaverſhof, under the branches of a ſacred tree, in the hollow of which little offerings are ſtill frequently found. This altar, artleſsly hewn out of a large block of granite, is about two ells in height, ſomewhat of the ſame in length, but ſcarcely one ell broad; ſmooth at top, of nearly an oval form, ſurrounded by a frame riſing two inches above the foot. The foot, all of one piece with

with the flat of the table, is pointed downwards that it may ſtick faſt in the earth: that it is a relict of paganiſm, is confirmed both by common report and the evidence ariſing from the thing itſelf. After the reformation no field-altars were erected; in the times of popery they would have had a better ſhape, and would certainly not have been placed under a ſuſpected tree; in general the whole form of it contradicts the ſuppoſition that it was made after the introduction of chriſtianity. For domeſtic uſes it could not have been deſigned, as many boors even at this day have no table at all in their houſes, much leſs one of ſtone. — That their ſacred trees and groves renew themſelves by the caſual falling of their own ſeeds, or by ſecret plantation, ſcarcely needs be mentioned.

Proper idol-temples indeed have not been found in Lieſland; yet, in regard to an antient wall ſtill ſtanding I have ſome doubts. It ſtands near the Vaſtemois, but in the precincts of Fellin-caſtle, on a little elevation in a foreſt much grubbed up. The wall is quadrangular, two ells thick, four fathoms long, and three fathoms broad. On each ſide are ſeen three ſmall windows; but none above the gate oppoſite. It is not exactly known whether they were formerly covered; nevertheleſs the boors unanimouſly relate, that in antient times, when the Fellin road ran that way, a traveller chanced to loſe himſelf in this foreſt, then very thick with trees, and in the anxiety of his mind here vowed to build a

chapel, which he did accordingly, and beſtowed upon it the name of Riſti Kirrik, that is, the Croſs-church. — If we give faith to this ſtory, the builder muſt have been a chriſtian. — At preſent this dilapidated ſtructure is put to a very ſingular uſe. Every year, nine days before the feaſt of St. George, or, as they call him, St. Yurgen, in the night, great multitudes of boors, of both ſexes, and of all ages, from all the adjacent parts, aſſemble here, ſometimes to the amount of ſeveral thouſands, kindle a fire within the incloſure of the wall, into which they throw offerings of various kinds, ſuch as yarn, flax, wool, bread, money, &c.; at the ſame time depoſiting all manner of waxen figures in the little apertures that ſeem to have ſerved for windows. Round the fire ſits a circle of beggars, who have the care of keeping it up; and for their trouble partake in the offerings. Of all the ſights in the world, this is ſurely the moſt ludicrous. All the barren women of the country round, dancing ſtark naked about theſe old walls; others eating and drinking with noiſy feſtivity; many more running in friſky gambols about the wood, and followed by young men, playing all ſorts of tricks, and talking all manner of ribaldry. Hitherto it has not been poſſible to put down this ſtrange licentious meeting; in the mean time all the circumſtances of it ſeem to ſhew that it is derived from the days of paganiſm. The offerings, the fire, the dancing, the licentiouſneſs, are manifeſt proofs of it; but then have we the

the remains of a heathen temple in Liefland? Without pretending to decide this queſtion, I find it not probable, that a people, known to be remarkably tenacious of their old inſtitutions ſhould in modern times make choice of a place to meet in for their interdicted worſhip, which their fathers had not employed to a like purpoſe. What ſhould move them to it; ſince they would be better concealed, and be leſs liable to detection, in the far deeper foreſts at no great diſtance. The preſervation of the wall, through ſo many ages to the preſent times, may be owing to reparations carried on by ſtealth; the ſtory about the occaſion of building it, and the reaſon for its name may be all a fiction, in order to ſave the place from the deſtruction with which it was threatened by the chriſtians. The Celts and Germans had no temples; neither had the antient Pruſſians any: but ſimply from a quadrangular wall, we can draw no inference of a temple. We are told by a learned antiquarian *, that the Pruſſians had the ſacred foreſts, where they worſhipped their deities with fire and ſacrifices, ſurrounded with curtains or ſcreens. The Lieflanders may likewiſe have had ſcreens or fences for a ſimiliar purpoſe; Kelch ſpeaks of hedges, which they ſet up in the foreſt around their idol. This was neceſſary at leaſt for keeping off the cattle that roamed at large. For the ſake of ſolidity and permanency they may eaſily

* Dr. Arnold, in his compendium of the eccleſiaſtical hiſtory of Pruſſia, book I.

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be ſuppoſed to have changed the hedge for a wall, as is often done by the rude inhabitants of other countries as well as of Liefland; but long before the arrival of the Germans, here was a ſort of towns and permanent houſes, and in all probability even ruſſian churches; and if that were not the caſe, yet this we know, that the Danes built monaſteries in the eleventh century on the coaſts of Eſthland. — Accordingly, we find incloſures, even walls, ſerving them inſtead of temples, without bearing that name, becauſe it is likely they were uncovered at top. This is delivered merely as an hypotheſis, which others, more deeply verſed in antiquities may think worth examining. To conclude, if the wall was actually built for a chriſtian chapel, yet the Eſthes found it not unſuitable for the performance of their heatheniſh devotions. Mr. Becker, in his little tract under the title of Livonia in ſacris ſuis conſiderata, poſitively ſays: interea in lucis ſive ſylvis iſtis neque templa, neque aræ, nec columnæ, nec idola fuerunt inventa; which is certainly advancing much more than he has authority for.

Not from the firſt pages of antient hiſtory, which are for ever veiled in obſcurity, nor yet from unwarrantable ſurmiſes; but, judging by antient uſages ſtill remaining, we perceive a great reſemblance between the old religious rites of the Celts and the Lieflanders, why ſhould it not be thought highly probable that the Liefs and Eſthes by their Yummal, and the Lettes by their Deeus, deſigned the ſole true God;

God; in ſubordination to whom they only admitted inferior deities as beneficent or malicious ſpirits? Perhaps it might be for this reaſon that the doctrine of the devil met with ſuch good reception, and is ſtill preſerved with ſo much reverence among them, inſomuch that they generally tremble at the mere recital of his miſchievous doings; imputing to him all the evil that happens in the world. Doubtleſs it is becauſe they think him like the dreadful deities they formerly imagined.

Among the Lettes and Eſthes alſo many remains of heatheniſm are ſtill obſervable; ſo that it ſhould ſeem as if the reformation together with all the learned opinions ſo ſcrupulouſly maintained by the biſhops, have not as yet been able to eradicate them. Their ignorance, then, which we muſt therefore believe partly invincible, with its attendant an unuſual ſenſuality, cheriſh their propenſity to purchaſe by ſacrifices and offerings a happy progreſs in their undertakings. In general, the benign influence of religion on their conduct is not perceptible by the moſt attentive obſerver.

In the twelfth century the Liefs and afterwards the Lettes, were brought to the profeſſion of chriſtianity by the Germans; but a part of the Eſthes by the Danes. Perhaps they already knew it by name, through the Ruſſians who dwelt in the country. The Germans gradually introduced baptiſm over the whole of the iſlands as well as the firm land. The new religion got an outward ſplendor from the teutonic

teutonic order, the inſtitution of biſhops, the foundation of monaſteries, and the appointment of prieſts; all was purely catholic. Nevertheleſs the Ruſſians have at all times had churches in Liefland; therefore in the various treaties entered into with the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, it is always an article that the ruſſian churches ſhall be kept clean and in good repair, and in all reſpects according to antient uſage.

A few particulars relating to the converſions in Livonia, from the old chronicle of Henry the Lette, may be worth inſerting here. It plainly appears that moſt of the converſions from heatheniſm in the fourth and fifth centuries were undertaken by fanaticiſm and the luſt of dominion; that they were carried on under a total ignorance of the human heart, by means of impoſture, pious frauds, artifice and violence, ſupported in their courſe by ſuperſtition, intolerance and ſelf-intereſt, and finally terminated in a tyrannical ſubjugation of the underſtanding and will, and in the uſurpation of the rights and property of the individual. Preſerving this reſemblance on the whole, the ſeveral nations and ages in which they were tranſacted have had their variations. Sometimes the arts of perſuaſion were more employed, ſometimes thoſe of impoſture ſucceeded better, and ſometimes tortures and murders were found moſt beneficial. The hiſtory of Livonia unites all theſe methods in one ſtriking picture. Scarcely any means were left unemployed. A diverſity which will be very comprehenſible when we

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ſee what a difference there was in the converters in regard to rank, talents, authority, views, and abilities; and at the ſame time take into contemplation the qualities of the heathens who were to be converted.

The firſt dawn of chriſtianity in Livonia promiſed a lighter, warmer, and more productive day than that which actually enſued. About twenty years had elapſed ſince the merchants of lower Saxony had diſcovered the mouth of the Dvina, and employed it in the purpoſes of commerce, when their factory became ſo numerous as to require a religious teacher. This teacher was Meinhard, an old monk of the monaſtery of Segeberg in Holſtein. The time of his arrival in the country is not aſcertained. Some pretend that it was in 1170, others in 1186. Probably his coming was chiefly on account of the heathens; but, not prematurely to betray his deſign, he confined himſelf at firſt to his little german congregation. During this time he was learning the language of the country; and, thinking himſelf ſufficiently ſtrong in it, he requeſted permiſſion of the ruſſian prince Vladimir at Pſcove, to preach chriſtianity there. Thus the worthy old man connected caution with his zeal, two properties not always found together; pity that his perceptions in religion were only the perceptions of the age in which he lived: extremely weak, undigeſted, and confined. It is therefore to be lamented, but not to be wondered at, that, as was cuſtomary at that time,

time, he baptized without inſtructing. A weak ill-founded edifice cannot poſſibly ſtand long. Nevertheleſs, Meinhard's labours were attended with ſucceſs. A ſervice which he rendered to his new countrymen in a civil capacity contributed not a little to it: he repulſed the Lithuanians who had made an incurſion upon them. Profiting by this event, he laid before them the neceſſity of having a ſtrong fortreſs; they were convinced by his arguments: and he promiſed it them on condition that they would allow themſelves to be baptized. Meinhard cauſed builders and materials to be brought from Gothland; and for defraying the expence obtained an eſtate in land. The fortreſs Ykeſkola, now called Uexkull, was finiſhed; but when the natives had got what they wiſhed, they would hear nothing farther of chriſtianity. The greater part had promiſed to ſubmit to baptiſm when the building ſhould be completed; they flew from their word: many had been previouſly baptized, and even the majority of theſe relapſed. Their neighbours alſo in the preſent Kirchholm cheated the good prieſt. They too promiſed to become chriſtians, if he would but build them a caſtle: and they likewiſe forfeited their word. The people of Kirchholm proceeded ſtill farther: they plundered Meinhard of what he had, and maltreated his people. That he was in the mean time appointed biſhop was not a ſufficient conſolation to him. He therefore determined to return with his clergy to Germany.

Germany. The Livonians more than once detained him from putting his deſign in execution; one while by entreaties, at another by menaces and actual violence, and yet they did all that lay in their power to render his ſtay uncomfortable. Deceived in his faireſt hopes, expoſed to a variety of inſults, and ſurrounded by ſtill greater perils, Meinhard paſſed a few uneaſy years longer among them, and died more of grief than of age. A man worthy of a better fate.

Whether accident or artifice on one hand, and pious credulity on the other, had the greater ſhare in producing them, it is not now to be aſcertained, but the Livonians alſo have MIRACLES to ſhew in the hiſtory of their converſion. The monk Diederik of Thoreyda was one of Meinhard's moſt active aſſiſtants. He baptized beyond the Aa. From envy at the fertility of his fields, the Eſthonians wanted to ſacrifice him. In order that they might learn the will of their deities on the ſubject, they began their uſual experiment with a ſacred horſe, by remarking which foot he ſet foremoſt on beginning to walk; on this occaſion he moved the left foot firſt, it was therefore the will of the gods that Diederik ſhould not be ſacrificed. But the Eſthonian prieſts were of opinion that the god of the chriſtians had ſeated himſelf on the back of the horſe, and forced him to ſet that foot foremoſt. The horſe muſt therefore be rubbed down in order to bruſh off the deity to the ground; and the ſolemnity

nity was renewed. Again the left foot! Diederik was now abſolved.—A Livonian who had a wound beſought the monk to heal him, on condition of being baptized. Without knowing any thing of the art of medicine, the converter mingled ſome herbs together, to which he hoped to impart a healing efficacy by his prayers; the patient in fact recovered, and became a chriſtian.—Another at the point of death, thought by baptiſm alone to be reſtored to health. His family and friends conceived that price too high, and nothing but the moſt manifeſt peril of death at laſt made their obſtinacy yield. However, the proſelyte died. So much the worſe! we are ready to exclaim. But no: ſo much the better! Another new convert, who was forty-two miles from the place, ſaw the ſoul of the deceaſed borne by angels to heaven: a circumſtance which had a better effect upon them who believed it than the recovery of a patient.

It was this Diederik whom biſhop Meinhard ſent to Germany to preſerve the remainder of chriſtianity by all poſſible means againſt the heathen, were it even by force of arms. Their ill-treatment of the pious biſhop had compelled him to this meaſure. Thus, by inſincerity, artifice, and thirſt of blood, they drew the ſword from the ſcabbard which afterwards chaſtiſed them in ſo dreadful a manner.

In Meinhard's place, Berthold, abbot of the monaſtery of Lockum in Hanover, was elected biſhop. He had Meinhard's caution without his zeal;

zeal; it was, therefore, no wonder, that in the preſent ſtate of things he heſitated to go into Livonia. But the archbiſhop of Bremen, to whom the new congregation had applied, perſuaded him to take the journey. Accordingly, he arrived in the year 1197, and ſtrove to recommend himſelf to the natives by qualities which they valued moſt. He gave them frequent entertainments, and on all ſuch occaſions ſent them home with preſents. He therefore met with a civil reception. Their civilities, however, laſted not long, and affronts were very ſoon followed by outrages. He was reproached with having come merely on account of his poverty. Perhaps he might be too precipitate in demanding the intereſt on this out-lying capital of the entertainments. However this be, matters proceeded ſo far, that at the conſecration of the church-yard of Kirchholm, the Livonians threatened to ſtab, or drown, or burn him. Perhaps it was owing ſolely to this indeciſion on the mode of his death that he happily eſcaped. He found it however not adviſable to remain here any longer. He left Livonia; and we ſhould have pitied him if he had been obliged to this ſtep for the ſake of being at reſt; but it proceeded from malice. He applied to Gothland and to Lower Saxony for ſuccour. The pope afforded him the moſt effectual by cauſing a cruſade to be preached againſt the heathens in Livonia. In conſequence whereof a great number of ſinners, deſirous of meriting indulgences by

murders, flocked to his ſtandard, and Berthold, in 1198, returned to Livonia with ſoldiers, According to the unhappy notions that prevailed at that time, the field of religion, which can only be fertilized by cordial zeal and diligence in inſtruction, was to be fattened with blood. From ſuch methods what elſe but thorns and thiſtles can ſpring up? The ſight of an armed hoſt did not produce among the heathens and heretics what was probably expected. Prepared to fight, they went to meet the invaders. They ſent deputies to the biſhop with the queſtion, why he was come with ſoldiers? Berthold anſwered, to puniſh them for their ſhameful lapſe from the chriſtianity which they had adopted. The natives replied, let him ſend away his warriors, and exerciſe his office in peace; thoſe who have ſuffered themſelves to be baptized, may by his remonſtrances be preſerved in chriſtianity; the reſt he may convert by words, not by blows. A reply which ought to have put the chriſtians to ſhame; but it cannot be mentioned to the honour of the Livonians. This was only a new eſſay of their artful inſincerity, in their eagerneſs to get the ſoldiers away, as appeared in the ſequel. A truce was concluded, but the heathens ſoon broke it by the aſſaſſination of ſeveral Germans. Berthold declared war, and a bloody battle enſued. The firſt who had attempted to make chriſtians in Livonia by the ſword, was the firſt who fell by the ſword; the biſhop on horſeback ruſhed into the throng, was ſtabbed,

ſtabbed, and cut to pieces. The enemy, however, had been previouſly thrown into diſorder, and were now more furiouſly purſued by the enraged ſoldiers. And thus the very loſs of the chief contributed to the great increaſe of the congregation. The heathens being entirely routed, and even their corn-fields laid waſte by the chriſtians, now ſued for peace, admitted prieſts into the forts, promiſed them from each haak * a meaſure of wheat, and flocked in ſuch numbers to be baptized, that in two days in Uexkull and Kirchholm one hundred and fifty chriſtians — were *named*. This done, the German ſoldiers to a man were embarked on board the merchant ſhips, and returned home. Scarcely were the ſhips at ſea, but the Livonians ran and bathed in the Dvina; in order, as they ſaid, to waſh away the baptiſm and chriſtianity together, and ſend it back to Saxony. They found a human head cut out in a tree. In the opinion that this was the god of the Saxons, who might probably ſtill do them

* Haaks, hakes, or hacks, (for it is written theſe ſeveral ways,) is the land-meaſure for aſcertaining the dimenſions of an eſtate and its taxes to the crown. An eſtate of two haaks may be more productive than another of five. In Eſthonia the labouring people upon the eſtate, but in Livonia the cultivated ground and its product, determine the number of haaks. Grounds that were formerly tilled and uſed, as ſuch were enregiſtered at the reviſion, but for want of people now lie unlaboured, are called waſte haaks, from which no taxes are demanded. In regard to ſuch it is ſaid, the eſtates can never increaſe its number of haaks.

much miſchief, they hewed it in pieces, made a particular kind of float of the fragments, and ſet it ſwimming on the ſea towards Gothland. They alſo robbed and plundered all that remained behind, and put upwards of two hundred to death. It is eaſy to imagine that the clergy, of whom ſeveral had come hither at various times, muſt be thrown into great diſtreſs; but the dangers of their ſituation were increaſed when the Livonians expreſsly reſolved, that all prieſts who ſhould be found in the country after Eaſter 1199, ſhould be ſlain. A ſimilar fate awaited the merchants. Theſe ranſomed their lives with money; but the clergy were forced to fly to Lower Saxony. Chriſtianity in Livonia now ſeemed to be verging to its total overthrow, and juſt at this point of time appeared the man who eſtabliſhed it on a firm foundation; indeed on ſwords, fortifications, and chains of bondage — he, however, eſtabliſhed it. There came the armed apoſtle Albrecht of Apelderen, afterwards canon of Bremen, now biſhop of Livonia: and it muſt be confeſſed that the livonian heathens deſerved ſuch a one much more than many other nations who were haraſſed into chriſtians.

The monk Meinhard, and the abbot Berthold, were principally bent upon baptiſm. Albrecht the nobleman and the canon was more reſolved upon governing than converting the Livonians. As ſoon as he was elected biſhop, he made it his buſineſs to procure effectual ſupport in Gothland, Denmark,

and Germany, and obtained it ſo richly, that in autumn 1199, he arrived in Livonia with three and twenty ſhips. At firſt he was not ſucceſsful; but now the burning of the corn-fields had again its effect: that is, the Livonians became chriſtians for fear of ſtarving. They confirmed their fidelity by hoſtages, which were obtained by inviting the chieftians to a feaſt, and then ſeizing and conveying them to priſon. The pope had hitherto been very active in the propagation of chriſtianity in Livonia, by a general ſummons to make war upon the heathen; he now made a merit of adding good counſel. He iſſued a bull, in which he recommended the converters to uſe gentleneſs and lenity towards the baptized, even at the expence of the true diſcipline of the church. And indeed the conduct of the clergy in Livonia at that time redounds infinitely more to their honour than elſewhere. It was, properly ſpeaking, the temporal arm that riveted the fetters of ſlavery on the natives, and, in the ſequel, made even the clergy feel the weight of its iron hand. True, it was the clergy themſelves that armed it, when the biſhop, in the year 1201 or 1202, founded the order of the brethren of the ſword*, and procured its confirmation by the pope. Their deſtination was to ſupport the biſhop in converting the infidels; their conſtitution was afterwards united with that of the

* Fratres Enſiferi.

knights-templars. For the times, principles, and exigencies of Albrecht, the inſtitution of ſuch an order was no bad conceit. Indeed he made an annual journey to Germany to fetch pilgrims; but when theſe had been robbing and plundering for a year to the glory of God, they were abſolved from their vow, and went back to Germany. Whereas Albrecht employed valiant men from whom the biſhopric might expect continual protection. For which reaſon he gave ample fiefs to ſome courageous nobles. But having not many of theſe at his diſpoſal, he fell upon the thought of forming about him a ſort of ſtanding army; and this purpoſe he effected by the new order. He alſo deviſed other methods for farther confirming chriſtianity in the country, in temporals as well as in ſpirituals. In the year 1201 the biſhop built the city of Riga, the conſequences whereof the heathen plainly ſaw, but they endeavoured in vain to prevent it. Hitherto the cathedral chapter was at Uexkull; Albrecht now transferred it to his new city, where he alſo built a monaſtery. Another monaſtery was alſo conſtructed at the mouth of the Dvina. The clergy diſperſed themſelves in all the country round, in order to teach and to baptize.

Of the methods employed in teaching, hiſtory mentions only one. It is curious enough, but certainly not the worſt of thoſe times. The dramatical annals of any nation can ſcarcely ſhew a theatrical college of ſuch remote antiquity as that of Riga.

At

At Riga in 1204 was acted a prophetic play, that is, a dramatized extract from the hiſtory of the old and new teſtaments. The deſign was by this means to allure the heathen to the adoption of chriſtianity, partly by attaching the converts to their new religion by ſenſible gratification, and partly to inſtruct them in the hiſtory of it. The Livonians, baptized and unbaptized, reſorted to it in multitudes, and they were informed of the contents by an interpreter. The piece was probably in latin; in pretty much the ſame taſte as the biblical plays that were cuſtomary in England, France, and Germany, in the ſixteenth and even the ſeventeenth century. The number of the performers muſt have been very great, (perhaps it conſiſted of the whole order together with the chapter,) as battles and wars were repreſented, for inſtance, from the hiſtory of Gideon, David, and Herod. The firſt exhibition, however, was like to have been attended by very ſerious conſequences. When the Iſraelites under Gideon's command were fighting at cloſe quarters with the Midianites, the heathens took it into their heads that the armed troops were brought in under this pretence, in order to fall upon them. They, therefore, fought their ſafety in flight. Their miſtake, however, being explained to them, they were perſuaded to return, and the play was brought to a happy concluſion.

It is not the hiſtorian's fault if the ſeveral groups of this picture ſtand rather wide aſunder. The

laſt ſcene was a biblical comedy. Now follow martyrs.

Our annaliſt * is as laviſh of this venerable name as the fathers of the church, and therefore is not always careful to beſtow it according to merit. A couple of inconſiderate proſelytes ventured, notwithſtanding the remonſtrances of the german commanders, to go into the meeting of their heatheniſh brethren in order to hear their conſultations; they were ſeized, and methods were adopted to force them to abjure chriſtianity: they remained firm, and the conſequence was that they were killed. The annaliſt calls them martyrs. If, in the inceſſant conflicts with the neighbouring heathens, ſome of the baptized were taken priſoners, and, for the cruelties they had uſed, were cruelly put to death, they are ſtyled martyrs. If pilgrims, who came to Livonia for the purpoſes of robbery and murder, met their deaths in a combat with the heathens, they are denominated martyrs. There were, however, really ſome who deſerved that appellation. Some prieſts who lived among the new-converts were clandeſtinely attacked and murdered without accuſation. But with people who themſelves are hardened to the higheſt degree againſt all ſorts of torture, the ſight of intrepid ſufferers made no great impreſſion. The buſineſs of converſion, therefore, in Livonia was not ſo much benefited by

* Henry the Lette, Livonian Chronicle, publiſhed by Arndt, part i.

martyrs

martyrs as it was in luxurious Aſia and Italy under the heathen emperors.

In the year 1205 Andrew archbiſhop of Lunden, on his return from an unſucceſsful cruſade to the iſle of Œſel, came to Riga, where he paſſed the winter. Henry the Lette relates many good deeds which he performed; we may reaſonably believe that alſo many of the events that afterwards happened, without being aſcribed to his merit, were of his doing. Andrew by having proſecuted his ſtudies in Italy, France, and England, was a very learned divine, and now made in Riga an excellent uſe of the knowledge he had acquired. He gave lectures in theology to the clergy of that city, expounded the pſalter, and exerciſed them in aſcetic practices. By his advice the vicar of the biſhop of Riga, in return for hoſtages received, ſent prieſts among the Livonians, divided the country into diſtinct pariſhes, and cauſed them to be not merely baptized, but previouſly inſtructed. To ſecure his inſtitutions churches were built. Among the popular teachers a certain Alobrand particularly diſtinguiſhed himſelf by zeal, activity, and prudence. The confidence placed in him by his congregation was ſo great that they appointed him their judge even in temporal matters. If the connection of the civil authority with the prieſthood be in general an impediment to the progreſs of mental improvement it is certainly beneficial among a rude people. Had all prieſts been like Alobrand they would not ſo

ſoon

ſoon have forced the laity to take the ſeat of judgement. But by the oppreſſions of rapacious adventurers this practice very quickly degenerated into an obſtacle to converſions.

Notwithſtanding this better regulation, contrary means and accidental circumſtances made more chriſtians than inſtruction. The Germans fitted out an expedition againſt Selburg beyond the Dvina. The fortreſs was ſurrounded, the beſieged were haraſſed on all ſides by the attacks of the enemy; at length the chriſtians ſet fire to the town. On this the Selens from deſperation capitulated with the chriſtians. One of the miſſionaries came to the Lettgallians in the diſtrict of the preſent Valk. The hiſtorian honeſtly relates that they had adopted chriſtianity, becauſe they reckoned on the protection of the Germans againſt the oppreſſions of their neighbours. But at the ſame time the ruſſian converter had appeared in the diſtrict. Doubtful to which religious ſect they ſhould give their aſſent, the former pitched upon a method which was ſtill more ambiguous than their motive. The lot was to decide. It fell in favour of the Germans; and thus the congregation of Riga acquired a new acceſſion of converts. In another inſtance the matter ſtopped ſhort at the intention; but, as a ſupplement to the hiſtory of rude uncultivated man, it ought not to be paſſed over. The Eſthonians had laid ſiege to a town which was defended by converted Lettes. While the enemy were carrying on their attacks, and the garriſon endeavouring to repulſe

repulſe them, the prieſt of the citadel had the courage to get up on one of the higheſt ramparts, and with a muſical inſtrument to accompany a religious hymn. The heathens were ſtruck with ſuch ſurpriſe, at a melody ſo novel to their ears, that they ſuddenly refrained from the attack, and inquired the occaſion of it. The Lettes returned for anſwer that it was the expreſſion of joy at the happineſs ariſing from baptiſm, and on account of the ſignal aſſiſtance of God in the combat, which was viſible from the advantages they had actually gained. Unwilling to contend againſt ſuch ſuperior force, the Eſthonians made offers of an accommodation. But, as the reſtitution of merchandize that had been carried off to a great amount was made an abſolute condition of the treaty, the conſideration of ſo important a ſurrender effaced the tranſient impreſſion of the interference of heaven, and they contented themſelves with raiſing the ſiege. In ſhort the buſineſs of converſion among the Lettes went on ſo proſperouſly, that they were all baptized to the number of one thouſand two hundred and nine.

Far more ſlow was the progreſs of chriſtianity in Eſthonia. Before the appearance of Meinhard a certain Fulco had received the commiſſion to labour at the converſion of the Finns and Eſthonians. He was ſucceeded by another likewiſe appointed by the Swedes; ſtill, however, little was done. Perhaps it was becauſe converſion was the ſole concern; and

and that, with ſo robuſt and ſtubborn a people, could not poſſibly proceed ſo rapidly as among the more pliant Lettes. Albert adopted a different method; he reſolved firſt to conquer Eſthonia and then to make converts. He went ſo zealouſly to work, that in 1210 he ordained a biſhop even before he had a dioceſe to give him. Chriſtianity, however, was gaining ground, but not a foot in extent that was not manured with blood; frequently to ſuch a degree that even the furious zealots themſelves, though hardened by the practice of the times, ſtood aghaſt at the ſight, and ſeemed to relent. Thus, in the year 1210, when the burg of Viliende (Fellin) was brought to ſubmiſſion by compromiſe, the fortreſs was full of dead bodies, and the remainder of the garriſon diſabled by wounds. The firſt thing the conquerors did was only to ſprinkle them all with holy water, and then proceeded to inſtruct the heathen in the firſt rudiments of chriſtianity. At other times they uſed firſt to baptize; for this once, however, they deferred it a little, becauſe, ſays the annaliſt, too much blood had been ſhed. Leal was converted by fire. The outworks haing been previouſly burnt by the Germans, the beſieged endeavoured to move the enemy to retire by an offer of money: but this they rejected, at the ſame time aſſuring them, that they wiſhed for nothing more than that they would allow themſelves to be baptized, that they might be reconciled with the great Pacificator, and become their brethren as well in the preſent as in

in the future world. The Eſthonians ſtill held out; but the fire was ſpreading far and wide; and in order not to be burned, they requeſted to be baptized. Was it ſurprizing, that ſuch proſelytes adhered to the faith no longer than till the apoſtolic incendiary had quitted their borders?

It would be tireſome to purſue the ſubject: therefore only a few traits more, as being eminently characteriſtic.

Ungannia [the diſtrict of Dorpat] and Saccala [the country round Fellin] were in 1214 reduced to chriſtianity. Rotalia [the Strandvyck] was likewiſe to be compelled to adopt it, and the Germans were beſieging a ſtrong caſtle in that diſtrict. After a brave reſiſtance the Eſthonians were forced to ſurrender for want of proviſions and water. This they did on the uſual terms of ſubmitting to baptiſm. Twenty days afterwards a prieſt was ſent to them. Concerning any previous inſtruction we find nothing recorded. He merely aſked, Will ye renounce idolatry and believe in the only God of the chriſtians? They anſwered, Yes. On which he poured water on them, ſaying the words: Ye are therefore baptized in the name of the father, the ſon, and the holy-ghoſt. With this the whole of the grand buſineſs ended.

Better regulations however were ſoon adopted in behalf of the Eſthonians. The biſhop of Riga in the year 1219 ſent prieſts into many of the provinces, who at leaſt took ſome pains in inſtructing before they adminiſtered baptiſm; it is nevertheleſs plain

plain from the precipitancy with which theſe converters proceeded in their labours, that the inſtruction could not poſſibly be adequate and ſufficient.

Henceforward chriſtianity made rapid progreſs in Eſthonia. Alas, it did! and never was it more clearly manifeſt with what ſpirit the converters were animated than at this period. Chriſtianity furniſhed merely the pretext, all their induſtry and abilities were directed by the thirſt of dominion. The Swedes made themſelves maſters of a part of Strandvyck, and to retain the people as ſubjects, made them chriſtians. But in an attack by the Œſelers their whole army was cut off, and for the preſent they abandoned the enterpriſe. The Danes, who were in poſſeſſion of the province of Reval, diſputed the right of the people of Riga to baptize in Eſthonia, pretending that they alone had the right of dominion there; the two rights being at that time the ſame. However this ſpecies of rivalſhip may be deemed unworthy of chriſtianity, ſtill more ſo were the ſhocking ſcenes which it occaſioned. The Danes ſent into the heathen villages, whither their baptiſts could not immediately come, large wooden croſſes: the erection whereof was for the purpoſe of informing the people of Riga that theſe places were already in occupancy. They carried their extravagance ſtill farther. The Riga prieſts came once into an eſthonian village, to whom the elderman ſaid, Here all are already baptized. Probably the prieſts knew that the Danes could not yet have been here, and therefore aſked, How? and by whom?

whom? "Yes, anſwered the Eſthonian, ſome of "our people were in a village, where the Daniſh "prieſt happened to be; there he baptized us, "and gave us conſecrated water to take home, "that we might here baptize ourſelves. Accor- "dingly we have ſprinkled our wives and chil- "dren with it, and what need is there then of a "new baptiſm?" Certainly, what need of a new one? but in the circumſtances which the new converts exhibited, why even the firſt? The manner of proceeding was in this inſtance only abſurd; the Danes in other places carried it to a criminal act. They hanged an elderman of Vierland for having cauſed himſelf to be baptized by the men of Riga, and given them his ſon as a hoſtage. An accommodation, indeed, was entered into between the Germans and the Danes, whereby the latter renounced the paramount lordſhip over Eſthonia which had been conquered by the knights: yet tranquillity was of no longer duration, than while one party or the other felt itſelf too weak for beginning the attack. When they had once found a fit opportunity their reciprocal feuds were recommenced. A papal legate who came to Riga in 1225, and gained great reputation by his manner of treating the new converts, took all poſſible pains to reconcile the contending parties: but always without any laſting effect. On the contrary, his preſence was the innocent occaſion of freſh acts of baſeneſs in the Danes. For as ſoon as he was gone, they ſet up an impoſtor as legate from the pope, who formally put

put the knights under a bann, and employed the zeal of the new converts in behalf of the church, to incite them to exterminate their converters. Theſe contentions laſted till towards the middle of the thirteenth century. Livonia and Eſthonia were baptized; even Œſel, by the campaign of 1227, was brought under the yoke of the chriſtians, and at the middle of that century there were only in Courland a few nominal heathens: in reality indeed there were infinitely more. Five biſhoprics were at that time in the new-converted provinces; Riga, Dorpat, Œſel, Selburg, and Reval.

Conſidering the whole of this buſineſs of converſion, are we to be ſurpriſed at the frequent relapſes of thoſe who had been baptized? And is it any wonder that an edifice conſtructed on ſo weak a foundation ſhould, even after ſo many centuries are elapſed, diſcover no traces of its origin? That theſe provinces were in the ſequel almoſt uninterruptedly ravaged by bloody wars, domeſtic and foreign, that the natives in various parts ſtill ſigh under an oppreſſion, of which it is thought a ſufficient juſtification to ſay that it is not equal to the negro ſlavery; that many a man is made a teacher of a congregation, who ſcarcely underſtands the firſt elements of the language of his people:—all this, and much more, contribute greatly to the deplorable appearance, of which of late ſome honeſt and enlightened preachers of theſe provinces have publicly complained: but it is no leſs certain that it is greatly owing to the methods taken for converting our heathen at the beginning of

of the thirteenth century, that ſtill at the cloſe of the eighteenth ſo many remains of paganiſm are found among the Lettes and Eſthonians *.

In the year 1522, the reformation forced its way into Liefland, by a preacher, who, on being driven out of Pomerania, had fled to Riga, named Andreas Knœpken, or Knopf. It quickly ſpread itſelf far and wide, and was even favoured by the order. All followed Luther's doctrine; and the popiſh ritual, afterwards patroniſed on the part of Poland, had, on the whole, no influence to its detriment. During the ſovereignty of Sweden over theſe regions, a law was enacted, that whoever deviated from the doctrine contained in the ſymbolical books, ſhould be incapable of inheriting any lands or dues for ever. Every other religious practice was prohibited, and even to be preſent at it, under the penalty of a hundred dollars in ſilver.

By the 10th article of the treaty of Nyſtadt, the greek religion is ſecured in the free exerciſe of its rites. In Riga there is a church for the uſe

* Das Ruſſiſche reich, oder merkwurdigkeiten aus der geſchichte, geographie und naturkunde aller der lænder, die jetzt zur ruſſiſchen monarchie gehœren, von Karl Gottlob Sonntag, oberpaſtor an der Jacob's kirche zu Riga, tom. i. p. 73, & ſqq. p. 267, & ſqq. The moſt credible voucher for the tranſactions of thoſe times is undoubtedly Henry the Lette. Arndt's chronicle, part i. p. 1—45. Hiærne has made uſe of them; Kelch and Ruſſof relate the circumſtances more fully, but their ſources are not always to be relied on. Gadebuſch gives the reſult of the hiſtorical critiques on the productions of this period. Livonian year-books, part i. ſect. i. p. 13—43.

of the Calviniſts; the catholics have not as yet built themſelves a proper church, but perform their worſhip in a houſe fitted up for that purpoſe. In Liefland it may be juſtly ſaid, that every man may follow his own perſuaſion in matters of religion without the leaſt moleſtation.

In Liefland count Zinzendorf found alſo many friends to his church-inſtitution. Its rapid progreſs, indeed, attracted the notice of government. Two of their followers, Eberhard Gutſlef, ſuperintendant of Œſel, and another, a preacher of that place, on account of certain charges laid againſt them, were brought to St. Peterſburg in 1747, with two other brethren, where the firſt died in priſon of ſickneſs in 1749, and the other was ſet at liberty in 1762. Since that event nothing has ever been attempted againſt the members of that fraternity.

Having already extended this ſection beyond what the limits I propoſed to myſelf will properly allow, I ſhall therefore conclude with ſomewhat concerning their language.

Mr. Hupel, to whoſe laborious reſearches the world is under great obligations, gives the following extract of a letter from M. Pritzbuer, provoſt of Marienburg: "A provoſt of Mecklenburg, of the name of Frank, has written an account of Mecklenburg. In the fifth century of his hiſtory I find the lettiſh paternoſter in Mecklenburg. Making allowance for the later improvements of the language, the imperfect knowledge of it in the firſt promulgators of chriſtianity, the miſtakes from frequent

frequent tranſcribing or printing, the ſtill uſual drawling out or expanding of the words, and the changing of ſome vowels, as a into o, alſo o into oa, and ee into i, as is cuſtomary in theſe parts, I conceive the matter to be very clear. I will therefore ſubjoin it as it comes to me, together with the correſponding words as they are now in uſe:

1. The old vendiſh:	Tabes	mus,	kas	tu	es
2. The preſent words:	Tehvs	muhſu,	kas	tu	eſſi
	Father	our,	who	thou	art

1. eeſhan	debbes;	ſis	ſvetitz	tows	varetz:
2. eekſhan	debbeſim;	eſſus	ſvetitihtz	taws	vahrds;
in	heaven;	be	hallowed	thy	name;

1. enach	mums	tows	valſtibs;	tows	proatz	bus	ka
2. eenhk	mums	taws	valſtiba;	taws	prahtz	buhs	kà
come	to us	thy	kingdom;	thy	will	be	as

1. eeſhan	debbes	ta	wurſam	ſemmes;	maſſe	demiſhe
2. eekſhan	debbeſim	tà	wirſu	ſemmes;	muhſu	deeniſhku
in	heaven	ſo	on	earth;	our	daily

1. mayſe	dus	mums	ſhoden;	pammate	mums	muſſe
2. maiſi	dohdi	mums	ſhodeen;	pametti	mums	muhſu
bread	give	us	to-day;	remit	us	our

1. grakhe,	ka	mes	pammat	muſſe	paradacken;
2. grehkus,	kà	mehs	pamettam	muhſu	paradneekeem;
ſins,	as	we	remit	our	debtors;

1. ne	wedde	mums	louna	badeke;	pet	paſſartza
2. ne	weddi	muhs	launa	kahrdinaſhana;	bet	paſſargi
not	lead	us	in evil	temptation;	but	deliver

1. mums	nu	wuſſe	loune.
2. muhs	no	wiſſa	launa.
us	from	all	evil.

The Liviſh language is indeed ſtill in being; but, as it is confined ſolely to the boors in Salis, a tract not more than ſeven engliſh miles in length on the coaſt of the Baltic, and they ſo mixed with the Lettes, that they might rather be called Lettes than Liefs, is in danger of becoming, in no long ſpace of time, altogether extinct, it may not be totally uſeleſs to preſerve ſuch words and phraſes as Mr. von Eſſen, ſuperior paſtor at Riga, was able to gather up amongſt them.

God, *Yummal*
Heaven, *tauge*
The ſun, *pehva*
The moon, *kuh*
A ſtar, *tehd*
A cloud, *pillud*
Rain, *vihme*
Rainbow, *vickerkahr*
The earth, *mah*
Sand, *yuge*
Man, *imie*
The ſoul, *yenge*
The body, *lee*
The head, *peh*
The hand, *kehſe*
The foot, *yalge*
Fleſh, *oſſa*
Bones, *luh*
A garment, *vamſe*
A pelice, *kaaſka*
Trouſers, *vſadde*
Stockings, *tucka*
Boots, *ſapkad*
Shoes, *kenge*
The town, *nine*
The village, *kiulla*
The houſe, *ohne*
The church, *pækodda*
The preacher, *pep*
Huſband, *mehs*
Wife, *neine*
Child, *lapſe*
Father, *iſſa*
Mother, *yemmad*
Son, *pohge*
Daughter, *tuhta*
Horſe, *ubbi*
Mare, *keeve*
Foal, *vahrſe*
Ox, *ehrge*
Cow, *neema*
Calf, *vaiſtas*
Ram, *ohnis*
Sheep, *lammaſe*
Lamb, *lammohni*
Boar, *orkas*
Swine, *ſhicka*
Pig, *porraſe*
Gooſe, *kohs*
Duck, *puhl*

Cock,

Cock, *kicka*
Hen, *kanna*
Fiſh, *kallad*
Net, *virge*
Boat, *laia*
Sea, *merr*
River, *yogg*
Bridge, *ſbilde*
Mountain, *paald*
Stone, *kihv*
Bread, *lebe*
Salt, *ſale*
Butter, *vuit*
Milk, *ſehmde*
Rye, *rugid*
Barley, *odred*
Oats, *kabrd*
Wheat, *niſſud*
Peas, *yehrnde*
Beans, *pubbad*
Turnips, *naggrad*
Flax, *linnad*
Hemp, *kanne*
Garden, *tarra*
Apple, *ummare*
Table, *lohde*
Stool, *kreſle*
Bench, *penke*
Candle, *kuhndel*
Candleſtick, *luchter*
The door, *uck*
The window, *leep*
To hope, *lodhub*
To hear, *kulupp*
To ſee, *neeb*
To taſte, *ſhmecke*
To ſmell, *aiſtab*
To feel, *muiſtkab*
To go, *leeb*
To paſs, *brauuma*
To ride, *ratzt*
To ſow, *kiullab*
To ſit, *iſtob*
To ſtand, *rurtub*
To call, *rutz*
To obey, *kubl*
To love, *milub*
To hate, *nidub*
To tell, *utlub*
To ſpeak, *pagateb*
To think, *mutlub*
To aſk, *kiuſſub*
Good morning, *yo omaga*
Good day, *yo paeva*
Good evening, *yo iddug*
What are you doing? *mis tei yutiet?*
Are you in health? *kas tei terud obdi?*
Let us go, *ubrgemi leed*
Come with me, *tulgid min imis*
Stay here, *yeed ten*
Farewell, *illagid terronis*
Good night, *maggo terronis*
To keep a wedding, *kaſep piddahym*
To curſe, *vannup*
The devil fetch thee, *votha teid kurre*
May thunder kill thee, *putki las tei robg*
That is certainly true, *ſe om tohdſt en toihs*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Preſent.	S. Minna om, I am.	Pl. Mee omme, we are.
	Sinna om, thou art.	Tee oti, ye are,
	Temma om, he is.	Nemmat, *or* need toiſt, they are.
Imperf.	S. Minna oll, I was.	Pl. Mee olme, we were.
	Sinna oll, thou waſt.	Tee olte, ye were.
	Temma oll, he was.	Nemmat, *or* need olte, they were

Perfect
Pluſquamperf. } carent.

Future.	S. Minna lime, I ſhall or will be.	Pl. Mee lime, we ſhall or will be.
	Sinna lime, thou ſhalt or wilt be.	Tee lime, ye ſhall or will be.
	Temma lime, he ſhall or will be.	Nemmat, *or* need lime, they ſhall or will be.

CONJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Pluſquamperf.	S. Minna olgſka, I ſhould have been.	Pl. Mee olgſka, we ſhould have been.
	Sinna olgſka, thou ſhouldſt have been.	Tee olgſka. ye ſhould have been.
	Temma olgſka, he ſhould have been.	Nemmat, *or* need olgſka, they ſhould have been.

All the other tenſes are wanting.

IMPERATIVE: Oth, be thou. Othe toi, be ye.
INFINITIVE: Olde, to be.

I have before me a collection made by the paſtor of another pariſh; but, as the reader will probably think the foregoing ſpecimen quite ſufficient, I ſhall here terminate this article.

SECTION III.

Mongoles.

FROM the cold northern regions of the Finns, we now proceed acroſs the ſouth-eaſtern aſiatic ſteppes to the confines of modern Siberia, there to trace out the primitive ſeat of a nation, once the terror and the ſcourge of more than one quarter of the world, which has ſpread itſelf over a great part of both the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres, and whoſe furious thirſt of conqueſt, for ſeveral ages together, has plunged Ruſſia into diſſolution and ruin.

The MONGOLES *, a nation remarkable as the diſturbers of the world, everywhere extended their ravages, as if the annihilation of the human race had been their ultimate object. Had not their violences brought about revolutions in the ſtate of governments and of mankind, and produced conſequences that are ſtill viſible, the hiſtorian would never have profaned his pen by recording the cataſtrophes of theſe barbarians, and their bloody

* That, contrary to the uſual poſition of the nations of Ruſſia, the Mongolians are treated of before the Tartars, is, becauſe the events that befel the latter, inaſmuch as they concern the ruſſian empire, are comprehended in the mongolian hiſtory, by which method the ſucceeding account of the tartarian nations is rendered more eaſy and familiar.

trophies would long ago have been conſigned to oblivion.

The antient hiſtory of the Mongoles is partly quite unknown and partly fabulous. In the ninth century three nations appeared roaming about the northern ſide of China and Korea, in countries whereof the Greeks and Romans had never heard: in the weſt, or in modern Mongolia, the Mong-u, who in the ſequel were called Monk-kos and Mongoles; farther to the eaſt the Kitanes; and, laſtly, beyond Korea as far as the Eaſtern-ocean, the Niudſches or Kin, who are, generally ſpeaking, the ſame people with the Tunguſes, and the Mandſchu the preſent ſovereigns of China. Theſe three people, who, gathering by degrees, grew at length to be great ruling nations, were at that time weak and inconſiderable. In the tenth century the Kitanes firſt ſubdued the two other nations, and then the northern provinces of China. The Niudſches, however, ſoon roſe in rebellion againſt them, were called in to their aſſiſtance by the Chineſe, and now got the upperhand of them as well as of the Kitanes. Upon this, a part of the latter retreated weſtwards, and took poſſeſſion of the leſſer Bukharia, where they have ſince bore the name of Karakitans or Karakitayans. In the mean time the Niudſches ruled over the north of China and the Mongoley as far as the Eaſtern-ocean. The Mongoles were divided into ſeveral hordes, who, notwithſtanding the

the ſupremacy of the Niudſches, had their own khans. It was one of theſe petty princes, Temudſchin, who, under the name of Tſchinghis-khan, became the founder of a new monarchy, and one of the moſt memorable ravagers of the world.

Temudſchin was thirteen years old when, on the death of his father in 1176, he became ſovereign of forty thouſand families: but, amidſt the ſanguinary quarrels that broke out among the khans of the different hordes, he ſoon found means by his bravery and fortitude to render himſelf the moſt powerful prince of the whole Mongoley. In order completely to become the general khan, and to enable himſelf to put in execution the great plans of conqueſt that were hatching in his reſtleſs mind, he had recourſe to the patronage of ſuperſtition, as the moſt effectual means to deſpotiſm. At a grand council, which, in 1206, was held at the ſources of the river Onon, a khodſha or ſage, who paſſed among the people for a prophet and favourite of the deity, publicly entered, announcing to him the dominion of the world, and requiring him, on the part of God, to aſſume henceforward the appellative of Tſchinghis-khan.

Thus it was that Tſchinghis began his formidable career, which laſted twenty years; during which time he deſolated the countries and ſubjugated the people from the Mongolèy and from China to the farther Aſia, and in Europe quite up to the ſhores of

of the Dniepr. If, however, we ſtop a moment to examine the condition of the european and the aſiatic ſtates at that period, we ſhall no longer be aſtoniſhed at the progreſs made by the arms of Tſchinghis, but ſhall rather ſee cauſe for ſurpriſe that they penetrated no farther. We ſhall not here detain the reader with the detail of his victories and conqueſts, but ſhall only obſerve in general the rapid aggrandizement of the mongolian monarchy, and particularly as it ſtood in relation to the ruſſian ſtate.

In the firſt three years of his warfare Tſchinghis ſubdued the Naimanes, Kirghiſes, and the other tartarian hordes. He received the voluntary ſubmiſſion of the Igures, a poliſhed nation who communicated the art of writing to the Mongoles, from whom afterwards the Mandſchu received it. About the ſame time Tſchinghis preſſed forward into the north-weſtern parts of China, and made the king of Tangut his vaſſal. Soon after this he turned his arms againſt the Niudſches, proceeding in his conqueſts, murders, and rapine, as far as the capital of Irnking, forced it to ſurrender, and found in it the wife Ilidſchutzay *, a truly great and noble-minded man, whom he made his firſt officer of ſtate; and who,

* This man, however harſh his name may ſound, highly merits to live in the hearts of all the friends of mankind; he was a deſcendant of the dethroned imperial houſe of the Kitanes.

not

not only reſcued ſeveral millions of perſons from their impending fate, that would otherwiſe have fallen victims to the ſavage Mongoles, but who alſo may juſtly be ſaid to have created the mongolian ſtate, by poliſhing the manners of that people, and, as far as he was able, diffeminating the arts and the ſciences among them.

While the Mongolian army was fighting againſt the Niudſches, in 1217, the flames of war broke out with increaſing fury on the weſtern ſide of the mongolian empire, which in the ſequel communicated to all the countries round, and the Mongoles advanced to nether Aſia, and thence again to Europe. — Keſchluk, king of the Naimanes, who had conquered Karakitai, rouzed the Kanglians *, the Kaptſchaks, the Kitanes, and ſeveral adjacent nations, to take up arms againſt the conqueror. Tſchinghis, upon this, committed the proſecution of the other wars to his ſon Tuſchi and various commanders, while himſelf marched againſt Keſchluk, whom he defeated, and the country ſubmitted after a ſhort reſiſtance. He now haſtened to meet the ſultan of Khovareſm †, who had cauſed his ambaſſador to be ſlain. This prince was undoubtedly his mightieſt and moſt dangerous adverſary; but he

* Theſe are the Petſchenegrans, as they are called by th ruſſian and poliſh chronologiſts. They denominate themſelves Kangar or Kangli.

† Khovareſm was a ſtate torn off from the great empire of Seldſchuk, which had been founded by turkiſh nations.

was

was likewiſe obliged to ſubmit to the mongolian conqueror. In the year 1220 the capital Khovareſm was captured, on which occaſion the number of the killed amounted to upwards of a hundred thouſand perſons, and every mongolian warrior received four-and-twenty ſlaves to his ſhare.

About the ſame time all the countries and nations round as far as the Oxus ſubmitted to his arms. Tſchinghis now diſpatched an army acroſs that river, who took Khoroſan, and drove the new khovareſmian ſultan to India. A ſecond was ſtill continually fighting in China againſt the Niudſches; a third was making conqueſts in Kaptſchak, on the north ſide of the Caſpian, and even a fourth, which had already reduced the countries on the ſouth ſide of that ſea, was now advancing againſt the Kaptſchaks. This is the army which proceeded quite up to the Dniepr. The Alanes, or Dagheſtanians, were already conquered, and the fierce Mongoles were ſtill preſſing hard on thoſe Kaptſchaks, which in the ruſſian year-books are called Polovtzes, on their retreat to the ruſſian borders with the grand-prince of Kief, and now with united forces fell upon the common foe. Unhappily here alſo the fortune of war decided in favour of the mongolian ravagers. In 1223 the Polovtzes and Ruſſians loſt the great battle on the Kalka *, and were purſued as far as

* This battle coſt ſix ruſſian princes their lives, and ſcarcely the tenth part of the army returned.

the

the Dniepr by the Mongoles, who, however, this time did not penetrate into Ruſſia; but, laden with immenſe booty, returned by Kaptſchak to Bukharia, to the great Tſchinghis.

In this very year, from which we date the commencement of the moſt unfortunate period for Ruſſia, Tſchinghis convoked a general diet, in which the form of government to be adopted for the conquered countries was ſettled *. This inſatiable conqueror, like Alexander, had formed the plan of penetrating into India; but here alſo the ſame thing happened to him as to his grecian predeceſſor: the army refuſed to proceed farther. — After an abſence of ſeven years, Tſchinghis, in 1225, returned to his Mongoley; but preſently after, that is, in the following year, he found himſelf obliged to undertake a campaign againſt the rebellious Tangut. The Mongoles penetrated acroſs the great ſandy deſert into that country, and were victorious everywhere; the royal race was exterminated, and the inhabitants were ſlaughtered in ſuch ſhocking multitudes, that ſcarcely one in fifty was ſpared. After this conqueſt, Tſchinghis had juſt conceived the idea of putting an end to the empire of the

* What ſort of a ſpirit preſided in this aſſembly may be judged of by a ſingle circumſtance. Some of the grandees adviſed Tſchinghis to exterminate all the inhabitants of the conquered countries in China; and it was with difficulty that Iliſchutzay put aſide the propoſal.

Niudſches

Niudſches in China, when death, in 1227, ſurpriſed this deſtroyer in the midſt of his dreadful projects.

Tſchinghis had bequeathed to his ſon Oktay the ſovereignty of his dominions; but this prince, as well as his three ſucceſſors, were properly no more than the grand khans of the prodigious mongolian empire, with whom their brothers and relations at the ſame time reigned in large tracts of country as princes, though dependent on the grand-khanate *.

Oktay firſt put an end to the empire of the Niudſches in China, and reduced the whole northern China to his authority. Shortly after this he made war upon the kings of Korea †, who had riſen up againſt his ſupremacy, and now took the reſolution, with an army of more than a million and a half of

* Tſchinghis in his lifetime had made the following ſettlement among his four ſons: 1. Oktay to be grand-khan, and to have the Mongoley, Tangut, and the countries already taken from the Niudſches. 2. Taulai obtained Khoraſan, the reſt of Perſia, and the indian conqueſts. 3. Dſchagatai had the greater and the leſs Bukharia, Turfan, the country of the Igures, and a part of the preſent Kalmuckey. 4. Baaty, a nephew of Tſchinghis, whoſe father was already dead, received Kaptſchak, or the countries on the north ſide of the Caſpian, with all the conqueſts thenceforth to be made on the european ſide.

† This title will be ſurpriſing to none who know that it was a part of the policy of the Mongoles to leave an apparent dignity to the princes in the conquered countries, as they alſo did in Ruſſia.

men,

men, to overrun the world from one end of our hemiſphere to the other. Putting himſelf at the head of ſix hundred thouſand of his troops he marched againſt the dynaſty of Song in ſouthern China; while, at the ſame time, the main body of his army, under the command of his ſon Kayuk and his nephews Baaty and Manku, proceeded to the weſt. On their progreſs they ſubdued the Tſcherkaſſes and Avkhaſes, penetrated the Baſchkirèy, into Kazan and Bulgaria, and finally came to Moſco. Fourteen ruſſian towns were burnt in one month [February 1238]: Baaty puſhed on towards Novgorod, and ordered all the inhabitants on his paſſage to be maſſacred. However, while yet a hundred verſts from Novgorod he ſuddenly turned about, and haſtened back to the regions of the Polovtzes and Bulgarians on the Volga. After ſeveral repeated attacks from the Mongoles, each of which exceeded the former in cruelty, moſt of the ruſſian princes ran off to Poland and Hungary, and left the diſpirited people to the fury of theſe military barbarians. At length, after a deſperate reſiſtance of ten weeks, Kief ſurrendered [1240], and received a mongolian viceroy. The grand-prince of Vladimir did homage to the khan of Kaptſchak, who confirmed him in his government and in the paramount lordſhip over the other princes. However, they made a voluntary ſubmiſſion of themſelves to the mongolian ſupremacy, that they might not be the

Mediterranean ſea, accelerated by diſcord and ambition the diſſolution, already prepared, of this enormous monarchy, which now ſeparated into the following ſtill very extenſive ſtates: 1. China. 2. Iran; or Perſia as far as the hither Aſia. 3. Dſchagatay; ſo called after its founder, as has been remarked above in ſpeaking of the diviſion under the ſucceſſors of Tſchinghis. 4. Kaptſchak. 5. Turan.

Koblay renewed the war with the Song, which at length terminated in the downfal of that dynaſty, and the entire conqueſt of the ſouthern China. — This line of the Tſchinghiſes formed itſelf completely on the pattern of the Chineſe: with the ferocity of the Mongoles, they loſt alſo their martial character, and were at laſt driven back into the Mongoley by the native dynaſty of Ming, where their poſterity, under the name of Kalkas-Mongoles, at preſent live in ſubmiſſion to the ſceptre of the Chineſe. — The circumſtances attending the Tſchinghiſes of Iran and Tſchagatay are beſide the limits of the plan we propoſed to ourſelves in this hiſtorical relation; but ſo much the nearer are we intereſted in the ſtates of Kaptſchak and Turan, as the revolutions effected in them are intimately implicated in the hiſtory and the preſent condition of the ruſſian empire.

We have already ſeen in what manner the ſtate of Kaptſchak was founded by Baaty, the kinſman of the great Tſchinghis, and that from 1240, the greater part of Ruſſia was ſubjected to theſe princes.

Koblay,

Koblay, at the commencement of his reign, likewiſe made Kaptſchak independent; in purſuance of the example ſet him by his predeceſſors in regard to the other ſtates of the mongolian empire: and from that time forth it was no longer the mongolian grand-khan, but the khan of Kaptſchak, under whoſe ſupremacy Ruſſia ſubſiſted for upwards of two hundred years. In order to rectify a ſlight miſtake, we will here endeavour to explain how it happened that this mongolian ſovereignty is conſtantly termed the tartarian in the ruſſian year-books. Mongoles and Tartars are, in their origin, manners, and language, two entirely diſtinct nations: but, on the ſubjugation of the generality of the tartar hordes by Tſchinghis, the two nations were ever more and more aſſimilating with each other. The kaptſchak empire, beſides its own army of mongolian warriors deſtitute of women, had for its inhabitants only genuine Tartars, and by little and little the troops were even completed by Tartars. It was therefore in fact not only Tartars who maintained the mongolian ſovereignty over Ruſſia, but even the Mongolians became in Ruſſia real Tartars, to which the introduction of the mohammedan religion into Kaptſchak, under the ſucceſſors of Baaty, contributed not a little.

From Baaty's time till the year 1441, Kaptſchak formed a large and well-compacted ſtate, governed in an uninterrupted line by the ſucceſſors of that prince. During the former half of that period the ruſſian princes made little or no attempts to rid

themſelves of this foreign ſovereignty; but about the middle of the fourteenth century the germ of decay began to expand itſelf in the mongole-tartarian ſtate. The throne now, on every vacancy, had ſeveral competitors, each endeavouring to enforce his pretenſions by arms, and the approaching downfal of the empire was, amidſt theſe diſturbances, growing more apparent from day to day. The firſt proof of this was given by the ruſſian grand-prince Dmitri Donſkoy, who, in the year 1380, vanquiſhed the khan Mamai in a ſignal and bloody battle on the Don. Yet, it was long before any conſequences favourable to the Ruſſians aroſe from this victory, and two years afterwards Moſco was again laid waſte by the Tartars. In the mean time, however, the demolition of the kaptſchak empire was haſtily advancing, and in the year 1441 it crumbled into four ſmaller ſtates, which in the ſpace of a century afterwards loſt themſelves in the ruſſian body politic, now liberated from its yoke and increaſing in power. Theſe ſtates were: 1. The khanate of Kazan. Ivan I. had already freed himſelf from the ſhackles of dependency, which his predeceſſors had riveted on this empire, and reduced the khan Ahmed, from a paramount lord, to be a tributary vaſſal; but Ivan's ſucceſſor ſaw his country yet ſeveral times ravaged by the Tartars of Kazan, and himſelf under the neceſſity once more to take the oath of fealty. The complete annihilation of this

tartarian

tartarian ſtate was the work of Ivan II. who in 1552 united the empire of Kazan to Ruſſia for ever.—2. The khanate of Aſtrakhan fell two years later [1554] into the hands of the ſame victorious chieftain; who, amidſt theſe conqueſts, gained alſo the greater part of, 3. The khanate of Kaptſchak. That part of this ſtate, which upon the ſeparation of the other three khanates ſtill remained, loſt, in the year 1506, its laſt khan, and the remainder of Kaptſchak was partitioned among the khans of the Krimea, of Kazan, and of Aſtrakhan. 4. The khanate of the Krimea was in the year 1783, without the help of the ſword, incorporated by Catharine II. with the ruſſian empire; and thus the laſt branch of the Tſchinghiſes of Kaptſchak was brought under the ſovereignty of their former vaſſals.

A ſimilar fate attended the ſtate of Turan; which, as we have already remarked, aroſe from the ruins of the huge mongolian empire, during the grand-khanate of the Koblay. A brother of Baaty was the founder of this ſtate, on the Aral-chain of mountains and about the Yaik, in countries which had been ceded to him by the latter, and which he himſelf afterwards increaſed by conqueſts in Siberia. The ſeries of the khans of Turan cloſed with Kutſchum, who, being firſt defeated by Yermak, the famous Kozak of the Don, with his ſmall band of adventurers, afterwards reſigned both his empire and his liberty to the Ruſſians. By them, in 1598,

he was brought as a priſoner to Moſco, and the entire conqueſt of his territories was completed by the ſubſequent reduction of Siberia.

Ere we conclude this general view of the tranſactions of the Mongoles, we muſt take notice of a conqueror from the body of that people, who formed the reſolution of reſtoring the fallen monarchy, and was ſo fortunate as to execute it in a manner worthy of his predeceſſors. This new deſtroyer was called Timur or Tamerlan, and was prince of Keſch near Samarkand, about the time when the Mongoles were everywhere diſheartened, and were entirely expelled from China. His dominion took its riſe in the great Bukharia, a part of the ancient Dſchagatay. After various turns of fortune *, he ſucceeded in the reduction of that empire; in the year 1369, he received the homage of the grandees and the title of the Sovereign of the World. From this time forth Timur became as great and general a plague as Tſchinghis. In 1371 he invaded Khovareſm, conquered Kaſchgar, hurled the khan of Kaptſchak from the throne, and ſet up another in his place; took the city Khovareſm, and made himſelf maſter of all Khoraſan and Sedſcheſtan, while his generals ſubdued the Avchanians, and

* On a flight which had once well nigh defeated all his proſpects and hopes, he was ſo poor that he had nothing in the world but a ſorry horſe and an old camel; he, who twenty years afterwards threw the three quarters of the old world into terror, and viſited them with deſolation.

captured

captured Kandahar. At the cloſe of the year 1384, he put himſelf in poſſeſſion of moſt of the countries from Perſia to the borders of Armenia; ſhortly after which he laid waſte all the tract from Ili as far as the Irtyſh, routed the khan of Kaptſchak, marched onward to the Volga, and then returned to Samarkand. On opening the campaign of 1393, he made conqueſts in ſouthern Perſia, took Bagdat and various other cities of Meſopotamia and Georgia, forced his way through Derbent into Kaptſchak, ravaged Moſco, and conquered Azof; then proſecuted the ſubjugation of Perſia, and again returned to Samarkand. In the year 1398 he ſet out upon an expedition to India, and croſſed the Ganges. At the commencement of the ſucceeding century, he made an incurſion into mammeluk Syria, conquered Aleppo, Damaſcus, and once more Bagdat: this done, he proceeded again to Georgia, forced Natolia to ſurrender, defeated Bajazet, made him his priſoner, and laid the emperor of Conſtantinople, the ſultan of the Ottomans, and the Mammeluks, under heavy contributions. After this he made another expedition to Georgia; and, in 1404, repaired again to Samarkand. At this place he was attacked by a ſevere and tedious illneſs which terminated in his death, juſt as he was forming the project of marching to China, there to reſtore the dominion of the Mongoles.—As ſuddenly as this common diſturber had completed his amazing conqueſts, ſo

rapidly did they fall away under his ſucceſſors, who loſt one after another all the countries which Tamerlan had left them to the Bukharèy and Khorazan; and even theſe the laſt khan, Babur, in 1498, was obliged to abandon, who, however, from an outcaſt and a fugitive, became the founder of the ſtate of Grand-Mongolia in Hindoſtan.

Such were the remarkable cataſtrophes of a nation, which now, degraded from its former grandeur, has ſcarcely any longer a memorial of it; and at preſent can only recollect, as in the obſcure and faint repreſentations of a dream, that it once was a nation which domineered over the world *. With the fall of the great mongolian empire of the Tſchinghiſes, began alſo the epocha of their decline; the diſſolution into ſmaller ſtates, which parted again into ſmaller ſtill, and were then reduced to ſubjection, at length brought about a diviſion into ſtems and hordes, and conſequently a complete retrogradation from the ſtate of civilization to the condition of raw uncultivated man. — We will for the preſent paſs over the period in which this ſingular decline took place, in order the ſooner to acquaint ourſelves with the ſtate of the mongolian nations at this day; and afterwards endeavour to trace out the particulars moſt worthy of notice in the

* The chief ſource of mongolian hiſtory is in the chineſe records. The Buræts have only imperfect traditions; but among the Kalmuks and Mongoles are genealogical regiſters of their princely races, which likewiſe contain other hiſtorical accounts.

hiſtory

hiſtory of the ſeveral races, ſince the deſtruction of the mongolian dominion.

It appears that many centuries ago the Mongoles were divided into two leading nations, whoſe partition might probably be owing either to national circumſtances, or to a natural ſeparation by mountains, and afterwards kept up by the ſeparate intereſts of their princes, or from a national enmity ariſing from perpetual diſſentions. Theſe two nations were brought to a union into one common ſtate by the great Tſchinghis; but, on the deſtruction of the monarchy erected by him, they were ſeparated again by the antient feuds, and have ever ſince, to their mutual ruin, been engaged in almoſt perpetual hoſtilities. The Mongoles, properly ſo called, compoſe the one, and the Dœrbœn-Oiræt the other of theſe nations.

Dœrbœn-Oiræt means the Quadruple-alliance, and is the common appellative of four principal races, namely, the Œlœt, Kho-it, Tummut, and Barga-Burat. The Œlœt are properly that branch, which in weſtern Aſia and in Europe, are known under the name of Kalmuks: the ſecond ſhoot, Kho-it, is, by wars and migrations, ſo effaced and diſperſed, as at preſent, except ſome remains among the Soongares and Mongoles, to be totally vaniſhed: of the Tummut, even the place of their preſent abode is not certainly known *: and the fourth and laſt ſtem, Barga-

* The Kalmuks themſelves have no knowledge whither this ſtem retreated; they only believe that they muſt ſtill be ſubſiſting ſomewhere

Barga-Burat, which probably at the time of the troubles excited by Tſchinghis took up its reſidence in the mountains about the Baikal, has, with all its branches, ever ſince the conqueſt of Siberia, been under the ruſſian ſovereignty. — Of theſe four ſtems, therefore, only the firſt and the laſt are a ſubject for hiſtory; as they, with the Mongoles, are the only mongolian tribes, with which, either here or in the ſequel, we have anything to do.

1. The MONGOLES comprehend the remainder of that people, who, as we have ſeen above, were driven out of China in the fourteenth century by the dynaſty of Ming, and are at preſent for the moſt part under the Mandſhur ſovereigns of that empire; though a ſmall portion of them own the ruſſian ſceptre. Since the demolition of the ſoongarian authority, and the reſtoration of peace in the Mongolèy, they have dwelt in the ſpacious region between Siberia and proper China, from the Eaſtern-ocean to the Soongarèy, and at preſent there is ſcarcely any diſcernible difference between the yellow Mongoles *, living from remote ages under the chineſe protection, and the former Tſchinghiſes or Kalkas-Mongoles.

ſomewhere in the interior or eaſtern parts of Aſia. As, according to authentic accounts, a populous mongolian race called Tummut, now inhabits the region between the river Naun and the chineſe wall, we may, with great appearance of probability, ſuppoſe it to be the loſt race of Oiræt.

* Scharra-Monggol.

When

When Siberia was conquered by the Ruſſians at the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, the Mongoles were ſtill a free and numerous people, governed by its own khans, under whoſe ſovereignty alſo were ſeveral ſiberian nations. They at firſt ſubmitted to the ruſſian arms; ſoon afterwards however they regained their liberty, and even granted ſupport to ſeveral of the nations of Siberia in their reſiſtance to that power. In their inteſtine wars with the Kalmuks they generally came off conquerors, with the loſs however of one race after the other. Their frequent and bloody wars with China turned out ſtill more unfortunately for them, as their perpetual feuds finally terminated in a complete ſubjugation. Continually haraſſed by the chineſe government, they are at preſent almoſt totally out of condition to riſk any attempts at liberating themſelves from the yoke; though they have preſerved their paternal ſeat, and oſtenſibly live under the government of their own hereditary princes *.

The Mongoles, at preſent among the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, in the laſt century withdrew

* China kept in the Mongolèy a conſiderable number of forts, at which the chieftains of the Mongoles were obliged to ſtop. Theſe formerly obtained from the Dalai-lama the title of khan or Khuntaidſchi; at preſent they are forced to ſubmit to have their officers appointed by the Chineſe. The nation itſelf is put under a military form of government, in lieu of the tribute, not unlike to that of the Kozaks; and through the continual and heavy ſervice, not only very burdenſome, but renders them contemptible in the eyes of the Chineſe, who hold the ſtate of a ſoldier to be almoſt infamous.

themſelves

themſelves from the chineſe dominion, and voluntarily put themſelves under the ruſſian ſupremacy. This example, in all likelihood, would have been followed by ſeveral other races, if Ruſſia had not bound herſelf in a border-treaty with China at the beginning of the 18th century, not to give admittance any more to mongolian runaways. The ruſſian Mongoles inhabit the regions about the Selenga in the irkutſkoi diſtrict of the government of Irkutſk, their dwelling-place extending from the 122d to the 125th degree of longitude, and between the 50th and 53d degree of north latitude. They conſiſt of ſeven ſtems, and theſe of twenty families or aimaks, which, by the enumeration of the year 1766, beſides 219 baptized, compriſed 6918 males.

2. The Œlœts or Kalmuks are at preſent the moſt remarkable branch of the Dœrbœn-Oiræt, as in general of the mongole nations. They themſelves affirm their home to have been between the Koko-noor * and Thibet. Long before Tſchingis-khan, according to the old reports of this people, the greateſt and mightieſt part of the Œlœt made a military expedition weſtward as far as the leſſer Aſia, and there loſt themſelves among the mountains of Caucaſus; but the reſt, who had ſtaid behind in great Tartary, received from their tartarian neighbours, the name Khalimak [the ſeparated]. In fact, they call themſelves alſo Khalmik, though Œlœt is always their peculiar denomination, which word likewiſe denotes a ſeparated, disjoined, or diſtinct

* Blue lake.

nation.

nation. — The Œlœts divide themſelves, at leaſt ſince the deſtruction of the mongolian monarchy, in four main ſhoots, who denominate themſelves Khoſchot, Derbet, Soongarr, and Torgot; and, from the time of their ſeparation from the Mongoles, have all along been ſubjected to various princely families.

The major part of the KHOSCHOTAN Kalmuks are ſaid to have kept in and about Thibet and on the Koko-noor, and after the downfall of the ſoongarian power to have remained under the protection of the Chineſe. The ſmaller part of this ſtock had long before withdrawn to the banks of the Irtyſh, and fell at length under the dominion of the ſoongarian horde, with which it made common cauſe in the wars againſt China, and was alſo diſperſed at the ſame time with the Soongarians. Thoſe under the chineſe ſovereignty, the ſtill united horde of the Khoſchotes, are eſtimated at fifty thouſand heads. They are reputed to have had their name, which implies warrior or hero, from the courage they diſplayed under the command of Tſchinghis; and, as well on account of this circumſtance, as becauſe they derive their princely race in uninterrupted ſucceſſion from the brother of the great Tſchinghis, they preſerve a ſuperiority of rank before the other kalmuk hordes. — The number of the Khoſchotes ſubject to Ruſſia is but ſmall. In the year 1675 there came fifteen hundred, and in 1759 an additional three hundred families to the ſhores of the Volga, where they ſettled and voluntarily ſubmitted to the ruſſian ſovereignty.

The SOONGARES, at the ſeparation of the mongolian monarchy, formed but one ſtock with the Derbetans, who afterwards parted, under two diſcordant brothers of their princely family. It was this horde, which in the laſt and at the beginning of the preſent century, reduced to their ſubjection a great part of the other kalmuk races, particularly the Khoſchot, Derbet, and Kho-it, and waged bloody wars with the Mongoles as well as with the chineſe empire itſelf, but which ended in their total ſubjugation and diſperſion. Previous to this unhappy period, they, together with the Derbets, numbered upwards of fifty thouſand bows, or fighting men, and paſſed in modern times for the braveſt, richeſt, and moſt powerful horde. Their ſeat was formerly about the Balkhaſh-lake and its rivers Tſchuy and Ily, and their moſt flouriſhing period was between the years 1696 and 1746. The towns of the eaſtern Bukharia and the great kirghiſe horde were about this time tributary to them. They conquered Budala, the capital of the Dalai-lama, and raiſed conteſts in Siberia, where they made tributary ſome nations belonging to Ruſſia, On the death of their khan Galdan Zeren, a diſſolution of the horde enſued, occaſioned by diſputes concerning the ſucceſſion, when the Torgots, the Khoſchotes, and Derbets ſeparated from it. A great part of the Soongarians diſperſed themſelves in the interior parts of Aſia, and quite into the uſbek towns; ſome thouſands of them fled into Siberia; when the generality accommodated themſelves to the chineſe

ſovereignty:

ſovereignty: and, from their own ſtatements, it appears, that ſcarcely twenty thouſand families of them and the derbetan nation are now remaining. — The number of the Soongares, who at that time [1758] took refuge in Ruſſia, amounted to about twenty thouſand heads; they were united with the volgaic Kalmuks, but for the moſt part returned with them in the year 1770 again into the Soongarèy.

The DERBETANS, who in the beginning had their paſturages in the region of the Koko-noor, removed thence, on account of the mongolian diſturbances, towards the Irtyſh, and, on that occaſion, ſplit into two parties. One of them united, as we have before obſerved, with the Soongares, in whoſe fortunes and final diſſolution it was at once involved; the other proceeded weſtward with the Torgots, towards the Yaik, [now Ural], as far as the Volga and the Don, where it completely ſettled. So long ago as the year 1673 they put themſelves, five thouſand kibitkies [tents or families] in number, under the khan of the Torgots, who were then on the river Ural, and did homage to the ruſſian empire. In the ſequel the derbetan princes, unwilling to remain any longer in ſubjection to the Torgots, went, on the death of khan Ayuka in 1723, with their people to the parts beyond the Don; at that time they were eſtimated at fourteen thouſand kibitkies. Since that time the ruſſian government had reaſon to oblige the khan Lava Donduk to put himſelf under the protection of the khans of the Krimea; and this occaſioned the horde to remove once more

to

to join the Torgots on the Volga. In the famous flight of the year 1770 they took no part, as they dreaded the being ſubjugated by the Torgots, but remained quiet under the prince Zenden, on the ſhores of the Volga.

The TORGOTS ſeem to have formed themſelves into a particular horde much later than the other kalmuk branches. At firſt they removed from the reſtleſs Soongares, marching conſtantly weſtward till they came to the ſteppes on the Volga, where they finally ſettled, and received from the Ruſſians the appellation of the volgaic Kalmuks. In the year 1616, this horde is ſaid to have ſubmitted to the ruſſian empire; at their croſſing the Ural in 1662, they numbered themſelves, and found the amount to be fifty-thouſand kibitkies. Their forenamed khan Ayuka brought a great part of the nogayan Tartars into ſubjection at the time when the latter were intending to ſpread themſelves beyond the river Ural; one of the ſons of this prince took his flight with fifteen thouſand kibitkies into the Soongarèy. Khan Donduk Ombo, the ſucceſſor of Ayuka, reduced ſix thouſand tents of Truchmenians and eight thouſand tents of khundurovian Tartars under the command of his horde, from which, however, the major part of the latter fled back. In the year 1761 the ruſſian government came to an agreement with this opulent and powerful horde which reſtricted the authority of the khans to narrower bounds, and excited ſuch diſcontents, that they returned in the winter of 1770 and 1771 to the amount of between fifty-

fifty-five and ſixty thouſand kibitkies, over the ice of the river Ural, acroſs the kirghiſian ſteppe, into the Soongarèy. This memorable tranſaction, which in the eighteenth century, and within the borders of a poliſhed ſtate, preſents a lively image of the antient migrations of ſwarms of people, principally took its riſe from the irritation of the khan, on his being aſſociated with deputies of the princes of the horde, whom he could not depoſe at will, and who received an aſſeſſor from the chancery of the government of Aſtrakhan; ſeconded by the complaints of the people of the want of paſture for their numerous droves, and the prophecies of the clergy that the horde would ſoon be compelled to adopt the chriſtian faith, to follow agriculture, and to deliver recruits. — It has already been obſerved, that even the greater part of the Soongares took part in this migration; only ſome few aimaks of the Torgots remained behind; but the Tartars in ſubjection to the horde refuſed to follow them. The ruſſian government, indeed, cauſed the fugitives to be purſued, but they fled with ſuch velocity, that only a few of them were overtaken and brought back. Numbers of them periſhed on this painful journey: a great part were taken priſoners by the Kirghiſes; and thoſe who reached the place of their deſtination put themſelves under the protection of the chineſe government, who immediately gave them a kind reception, but, for political reaſons, afterwards treated them with extreme ſeverity *.

* See the Life of Catharine II. 4th edit. vol. ii. p. 158, & ſqq.

The whole amount of the Kalmuks that remained in Ruſſia, were eſtimated a few years ago at ſomewhat more than twenty-thouſand tents. Theſe are the remains of all the four ſtems; but the Khoſchotes, the Soongares, and Torgots, who either ſtaid or were caught on their flight and brought back, and are diſtributed among the Derbets, who, beſides ſeveral petty princes, have a taidſcha or khan preſiding over them. They wander, with their flocks and herds, in the ſteppes between the Don and the Volga, from the line of Tzaritzin as far as Caucaſus; and between the Volga and the river Ural, from the Irghis quite to the Caſpian; therefore in the governments of Saratof and Aſtrakhan, and in the ſeats of the Kozaks of the Don.

In addition to theſe there is ſtill a particular and numerous colony of BAPTIZED KALMUKS. Towards the cloſe of the laſt century many, even diſtinguiſhed and noble, members of this nation began to profeſs themſelves of the chriſtian faith. As the neighbourhood with their unbaptized fellow-races gave occaſion to diſagreements and controverſies, the government, in the year 1737, eſtabliſhed the former in a fruitful region about the rivers Samara, Sok, and Tok, (in the preſent government of Simbirſk, and in the orenburg diſtrict of the government of Ufa,) and granted them alſo the city of Stavropol, which is now a chief town of the government of Simbirſk. The increaſe of this colony was ſo conſiderable, that in the year 1771 they could reckon nearly fourteen thouſand

thouſand heads, whereas in 1754 they were only eight thouſand ſix hundred and ninety-five.—There is yet ſubſiſting in the government of Ufa a ſmall colony of MOHAMMEDAN KALMUKS, which ſprung up from individual proſelytes made by the Kirghiſes and adopted by that body.

3. The third and laſt mongolian nation, which ſtill merits the name of a diſtinct people, are the BARGA-BURAT, called by the Ruſſians Buræti or Bratſkiye. That this nation compoſed one of the four ſtems of the Dœrbœn-Oiræts has been already mentioned. The Burats ſeem, about the time of the mongolian monarchy, or ſtill earlier, to have taken refuge in the wild mountainous region on the north ſide of the Baikal, which they ſtill inhabit. Should they even not have avoided the conquering arms of Tſchinghis, yet they appear ſhortly afterwards to have recovered their liberty, when the mongolian monarchy made China its ſeat of empire, and the ſtems that wandered about the remoter regions began to diſperſe. The Ruſſians found this nation in Siberia at their conqueſt of that country; and from the year 1644 they have peaceably accommodated themſelves to the ruſſian ſupremacy. The whole buræt nation is at preſent, in conſequence of the border-treaty, under the dominion of Ruſſia, and comprizes numerous heatheniſh people in the government of Irkutſk, where it inhabits the region from the Yeniſſey, along the mongole-chineſe borders, on the Angara, Tunguſka, and the upper

Lena, about the ſouthern Baikál, on the Selenga, the Argoon, and its rivers. Several years ago this government was computed to contain thirty-two thouſand tributary Burætes; and, beſides theſe, there were a few ſtems and races in the kraſnoyarſkoi circle of the government of Kolhyvan on the right bank of the Yeniſſey. If we take into the account the defects of an enumeration attended with ſo many difficulties, the female ſex, and the natural increaſe of the people in ſuch a ſucceſſion of years, we may admit their number to be four times as large without treſpaſſing too much upon probability.

SECTION IV.

Tartars.

A FOURTH primitive ſtock of the nations dwelling in Ruſſia are the TARTARS. This national appellative is ſo much miſapplied, that with ſome inquirers into hiſtory a doubt has even ariſen, whether there ever was a peculiar people of that name. Under this denomination have been implied all tribes beyond Perſia and India as far as the Eaſtern-ocean, however differing from each other in regard to their origin, language, manners, religion, and cuſtoms. Now, that we are better acquainted with theſe nations, we know that the Tartars in reality compoſe

compoſe a diſtinct nation which originally belonged to the great turkiſh ſtock *.

The firſt known mother-country of the Turks or Tartars lies ſomewhere in the countries on the eaſtern and northern ſides of the Caſpian, where their deſcendants have ſtill their ſeats. In antient times they were ſpread from the Axus or Gihon into the Mongoley and the Orenburg territory; that is, in regions where they had conſtantly ambitious and domineering nations for their neighbours and enemies: on the eaſt ſide the Chineſe; ſouth-weſtwards the Perſians, Macedonians, Romans, Partho-perſians, and Arabians; and laſtly the Mongoles in the north-eaſt. Here they ſerved

* The name TARTAR may either, 1. really originate from a turkiſh horde, which bore this denomination, as Abulgaſi, the hiſtorian of his own nation, affirms, and as from circumſtances is very likely, that the Yakutes, among their deities, have a Tatar, who probably enjoys that honour as the patriarch of the nation; or it may alſo, 2. be derived from the Chineſe, who call all their neighbours, without diſtinction, Tata or Ta dſe; which latter hypotheſis acquires ſome weight from this circumſtance, that the Perſians and Arabians know nothing of the Tartars under that appellation. It was firſt brought into general uſe in Europe after Baaty's incurſion into Hungary under King Frederic II. Uncertain, however, as this denomination is, it nevertheleſs ſeems clear, that the Tartars are of turkiſh origin, and that their proper name was Turk or Turkoman, and not Tatar. Not only the learned of their own nation affirm this to be the caſe, but the tartarian language is ſtill really nothing but the old-turkiſh. The modern ottoman Turks ſpeak even the tartarian tongue, only in another dialect.

from time immemorial as a mound againſt the incurſions of the nations who would penetrate from the eaſt to the weſt or contrariwiſe, till at length the Mongoles, like a ruſhing ſtream that has burſt its banks, ſwept away all oppoſition. In common with other nations, at their origin, the Turks at firſt divided only into ſtems and hordes, the names whereof have been preſerved to us by the tartar, perſian, and chineſe hiſtorians. A main ſtock already appears in Herodotus under the name of the Maſſagetes, whom Strabo acknowledges for brethren of the Khoraſmians, and who by a conſtant repetition of great actions, and by the commerce of the hither-Aſiatic and eaſtern-European nations with Serika, are preſerved in remembrance by hiſtorians and geographers, though their hiſtory is neither connected nor complete. The appellative Turks was borne about the year 545 — how much earlier is not known — only by that part of the nation which had long had its habitations in the Altay-mountains along the Irtyſh, where that people in the middle of the ſixth century founded a ſtate, which ſoon became ſo powerful as to give diſturbance to China and Perſia, and to have an interchange of ambaſſadors with the eaſt Romans. In the ſame century, however, this ſtate ſplit into two great parts, which afterwards ſeparated into ſeveral petty khanates, and at length chiefly became a prey to the victorious Arabs, till the primitive Turks ſucceeded once more in founding conſiderable ſtates in the kaliphate itſelf.

Eight

Eight turkiſh tribes by degrees now make their entrance on the ſtage of hiſtory, cauſing great revolutions both in Europe and in Aſia, founding empires, and performing the part of nations aiming at univerſal dominion. Three of them, who had penetrated early into Europe, attract our attention principally on account of their relations with the ruſſian empire: the Khazares, the Petſchenegrans, and the Uzes.

The KHAZARES, a bold and powerful nation, had their original home on the iſthmus of Caucaſus between the Caſpian and the ſea of Azof. In the ſeventh century they began to be famous, and till towards the middle of the ninth century their ſtate was in an increaſing and flouriſhing condition. About that time the empire of the Khazares extended from the Volga and the Caſpian, acroſs the caucaſian iſthmus, the peninſula of the Krimea, and what is now the ſouth of Ruſſia, as far as to Moldavia and Valakhia; and ſeveral ſlavonian tribes, particularly the Polianes about Kief and on the Dniepr, the Severans on the rivers Deſna, Sem, and Sula, the Viatitſches on the Oka, and the Radimitſches on the Soſha, were tributary to them. But after the year 862 three nations wrought their downfal: the Ruſſians, the Petſchenegrans, and the Uzes. The varagian or ruſſian leaders, Oſkold and Dir, raviſhed from them the dominion over the Polianes; Oleg, in 884, reduced the Severans and the Radimitſches to his authority. His ſucceſſor,

in 964, conquered the territory of the Viatitſches and the nine khazarian countries on the iſthmus of Caucaſus. The Khazares loſt the remainder of their dominion about 1016 to the combined forces of the Ruſſians and eaſt Romans. The nation, indeed, continued for ſome time longer, but they were ſubmiſſive and tributary to the Ruſſians.

The PETSCHENEGRANS, as they are called in the ruſſian and poliſh year-books, name themſelves Kangar or Kangli, and were a powerful nomadic nation, which we can trace back to a homeſtead on the rivers Volga and Ural. They became firſt known in Europe by their incurſion into the Khazarian empire in 839, and by their wars in 867 with the Slavonians, but ſhortly before made tributary to the Khazares. Driven from their ſeats by the Uzes and Khazares, they made themſelves maſters of the country between the Don and the Dnieſtr, and thence expelled the Hungarians ſubject to the Khazares. In the eleventh century they broke up and migrated towards Moravia, Bulgaria, and Thrace, and eſtabliſhed themſelves, after committing frequent ravages in the countries of the eaſt Romans, in Dardania and the leſſer Scythia. At the cloſe of the twelfth century they poſſeſſed a part of Tranſylvania; but about that time they gradually vaniſh out of hiſtory.

The UZES, called alſo Kumanians or Polovtzes, appear already in Herodotus and Strabo. About the time when they firſt make their entrance in hiſtory

hiſtory as an active nation [883], that is, when, in conjunction with the Khazares, they drove the Petſchenegrans from their homeſteads, they had already extended themſelves from Khareſm and the mountains of Kitzig-Tag, as far as the nether Volga. They now took the countries of the expelled Petſchenegrans into poſſeſſion, and one of their ſtems made themſelves maſters of the original abodes of the Khazares, on the weſtern ſide of the Volga and the Caſpian as far as Derbent. In the eleventh century they even ſpread into the eaſtern parts of Europe. They raviſhed from the Petſchenegrans almoſt all that they had hitherto poſſeſſed in that quarter of the globe, particularly the Krim, the countries between the Don and the Dniepr, with Moldavia and Valakhia. After they had continued their ravages for a long time in Bulgaria, Thrace, Tranſylvania, and Hungary, and were in a great meaſure brought to ruin, they at laſt ſettled in Hungary. Towards the end of the eleventh century, they captured the north-eaſtern part of the Kuban from the Ruſſians, who were at that time torn to pieces by inteſtine diſſenſions. In the former half of the thirteenth century they loſt by the Tſchinghiſes, Moldavia, Valakhia, and the Krim. In the year 1330 the Kumanians were numbered among the nations tributary to the ſtate of Hungary; but from that time they ceaſe to be an hiſtorical nation.

Beſide

Beſide the foregoing and ſeveral other turkiſh tribes that raiſed themſelves to be independent or dominant nations, there were many ſeparate branches of the ſame ſtem, the tranſactions and circumſtances whereof, though not unknown, are not ſubjects for univerſal hiſtory, and of whom, therefore, little more is ſtated than the bare names. To this remark the Tartars are an exception, who indeed did not attain to any hiſtorical memorial till their ſubjugation by the Mongoles, yet whoſe earlier deſtinies, on account of the importance and extenſiveneſs of that nation, excited ſome intereſt in the ſucceeding times.

Abu'l Gaſi Bahatur khan *, who has given a copious, though not a complete, liſt of the turkiſh ſtems, mentions among them the tartarian as one of the moſt antient and famous, and derives its origin from a khan of the name Tatar. This ſtem, which in proceſs of time increaſed to ſeventy thou-

* This hiſtorian was prince of Khareſm, and died in the year 1663. His ſon and ſucceſſor Anuſha Mahmed khan completed the work of Abulgaſi, which bears the title of "A genealogical "hiſtory of the Turks," and has been tranſlated into ruſs, german, french, and engliſh. The imperial academy of ſciences at St. Peterſburg is in poſſeſſion of two good manuſcripts of the tartarian original, and a written tranſlation in german conſiſting of two folio volumes made more than forty years ago by profeſſor Kehr immediately from the tartarian. He entitles this work: "A faithful tranſlation from the tartarian original text "of the Ghiviſchian ruler Abu'l Gaſi Bahatur khan's Mongole-"tartarian-turkiſh family-regiſter and chronicle."

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ſand families, was at firſt governed by its own commander, and afterwards divided into various branches, and ſpread into ſeveral and very diſtant regions, whereby their power was in ſome degree weakened. The moſt conſiderable branch ſettled on the borders of Kitay [China,] and fell under the ſovereignty of that empire, againſt which it frequently rebelled, and thereby gave occaſion to ruinous wars. At the time of Tſchinghis ſome Tartars dwelt on the Onon or Amoor, who were tributary to the emperor of Kin, reigning in Kitay. Even Yeſſukai, the father of Tſchinghis, had waged bloody wars with one of the tartarian race.

The Tartars only began to acquire ſome conſequence in hiſtory at the time of their ſubjugation by the Mongoles. The very firſt enterpriſe of the great Tſchinghis was againſt this people; and it is certain that this conqueror, ere he ravaged China with his armies, had already reduced all the tartar hordes to his authority, and was in quiet poſſeſſion of their dominion, ſo that on his expedition againſt the Niudſches he had no obſtacle to fear on this ſide. But, from the moment that the hiſtory of the Tartars excites attention, it ceaſes to be the hiſtory of a peculiar nation. Diſtributed under the banners and commanders of the Mongoles, theſe enjoy with poſterity the glory of their victories and conqueſts, while, by a ſurpriſing caprice of fortune, the Tartars are obliged to lend their name to the devaſtations with which both nations everywhere

where marked the bloody progreſs of their armies. The ſubſequent events of this people have in part been already noticed under the laſt head of the hiſtorical ſketch of the Mongoles, and the reſt will be mentioned when we come to the account of the particular tartarian nations.

One conſequence of the tartarian ſubjugation was, that the name of this nation which hitherto, out of China and the Mongoley, had been unknown to the reſt of the world, began now to ſpread itſelf in the weſtern Aſia and in Europe, and preſently cauſed a complete interchange of victor and vanquiſhed. In the later military expeditions of Tſchinghis, the Tartars were by far the moſt numerous part of his army, as we are juſtified in concluding from the ſingle circumſtance, that in all the conquered countries which before had had their proper language, not the mongolian but the tartarian became the predominant tongue; as, in the leſſer and the greater Bukharia, among the Baſhkirs and Tſchuvaſches, in the Krim and in the Kuban, &c. — Nothing was therefore more natural, than that the incomparably greater number of the Tartars expunged the mongolian names in all the weſtern countries: beſides, wars undertaken in conjunction, a community of habitation, and one common ruler, were favourable to the commixture of the two nations, the veſtiges whereof, however, upon the demolition of the mongolian monarchy, are ſo much effaced, that at preſent, excepting in a diſtant ſimila-

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rity of ſpeech *, the ſlighteſt relationſhip is no longer viſible, even the lineaments of the face, and in their political conſtitution, (that of the Tartars partaking more of the democratical, as that of the Mongoles does of the monarchical,) the two nations diſcover a difference extremely characteriſtic, which is only leſs ſtriking in particular races; for inſtance, in the Kuſnetſki-tartars, the Yakutes, and ſome others.

On the death of Tſchinghis-khan, to maintain and people the conquered countries numerous colonizings were neceſſary, by which an almoſt general tranſplantation and migration of mongole and tartar ſtems enſued. This was the common policy of the ſucceſſors of Tſchinghis, who withdrew with their hordes to the countries which had fallen to their ſhare from the great maſs of his conqueſts †. We

* The tartarian language has mongolian words, which are not to be found in the turkiſh. The reaſon of this is probably becauſe the ſoldiers of the mongolian army, being all unmarried, the race became extinct, and the offspring they had by the tartarian women in the conquered countries rather caught the language of their mothers than the more difficult dialect of their fathers, whence it happened, that in theſe countries, only a ſlight knowledge of the latter remained, which was afterwards ever more and more getting into diſuſe, till at laſt only a few words of the language of the original country were left remaining.

† The Uſbeks, for example, or the Tartars, as they are called, in the great Bukharia and in Khoraſm, conſiſt, according to Abulgaſi, of four main ſtocks, of which the Naimanes and Igures are known from the hiſtory of Tſchinghis. But theſe two hordes formerly dwelt, the former on the weſtern ſide of the native territories of Tſchinghis, and the latter in Turfan.

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are not therefore to be ſurpriſed at finding tartarian tribes and races beyond the boundaries of their country, and ſometimes in very diſtant regions: the Naimans, for example, are entirely vaniſhed, at leaſt, excepting their name, from their original home; but they appear again in the weſt among the Uſbeks, and in the eaſt about the river Sira, above the province Lea-tong. A ſimiliar fate has befallen the generality of the ſtems, as we ſhall ſee when we come to treat of the ſiberian Tartars.

The final cataſtrophe of the great mongole-tartarian monarchy, and the ſubj ugation of the ſeveral countries into which that monſtrous ſtate divided, as to their moſt remarkable particulars, have been already noticed under the foregoing head. As we there gave ſome account of the preſent ſtate of the mongole nation, we will here caſt an eye upon the exiſting conſtitution of the Tartars in general, and then proceed to lay before the reader the ſtate of the particular ſtems that now belong to the ruſſian empire.

Not only ſubjugated in their conquered countries, but even forced from a great part of their old homeſtead, only ſome few of the hordes, in reference to the whole tartarian nation, have preſerved their independence; thoſe, namely, who inhabit the ſouth-weſtern part of the former great Tartary, towards the perſian, indian, and ſoongarian borders. Here we find the great Kirghiſian-horde, the Bukharians, the Khivans or Khivinſes, the Karakalpaks, Truchmenes,

menes, Taſchkentians, Turkoſtans, Aralians, and ſome other races, which ſtill form diſtinct ſtates, and retain a ſort of national liberty, but are all together ſo little formidable to their neighbours, that they ſeek protection wherever they are moſt likely to find it, according to their political ſituation, ſometimes from one power, and ſometimes from another. The whole remains of this nation, once ſo great, now ſubſiſt under foreign ſovereignty. Many hordes belong, either as ſubjects, or as dependent wards of the ruſſian empire; others are in like manner appanages to the ottoman Turks, or ſubject to the great Mogul, to China, and to Perſia.

The Tartars belonging to the ruſſian empire inhabit the northern coaſts of the Euxine and the Caſpian, the north ſide of the caucaſean mountains, the extenſive ſteppes from the river Ural to the Soongarèy, the ſouthern Ural, in Siberia the ſouthern frontier mountains and ſteppes from the Tobol quite over the Yeniſſey, and the deſerts in the middle region of the Lena; likewiſe not a few tartar colonies are diſperſed among the ruſſian habitations, particularly in the governments of Ufa, Kazan, and Tobolſk.

As theſe regions have for the moſt part, ſince the flouriſhing epocha of the mongole-tartarian monarchy, been inhabited by them, frequent memorials are found there of their antient grandeur, magnificence, and culture, of which ſome are of an antiquity

antiquity demonſtrably of above a thouſand years. It is no rare thing to come ſuddenly upon the ruins of ſome town, which, in its crumbling remains, plainly evinces the progreſs which the arts had made among a people whom we are wont to conſider as barbarians *. Still more frequently are ſeen ſepulchres, which, by their inſcriptions, throw light upon the hiſtory of this nation; and, in the veſſels and implements preſerved in them, ſupply us with intereſting proofs of its opulence, its taſte, and its induſtry †. — Theſe matters properly be-

* Near Kaſimof, on the Oka, a circle-town of the government of Rianza, is ſtanding a tartarian ſuburb, which ſeems formerly to have been the court-reſidence of a khan. Among the ruins is a lofty round tower, an oratory or chapel, the remains of a palace and a mauſoleum, all conſtructed of brick or burnt tiles. Not far from Aſtrakhan are the ruins of the old Aſtrakhan; and higher up the Volga, near Tzaritzin, ſimilar heaps of rubbiſh which have evidently been a ſpacious town. On the Volga, below the mouth of the Kama, are found well-preſerved and partly magnificent remains of the antient Bruchimof, or Bolgar. In the citadel of Kazan are ſtill ſeen monuments of the tartarian monarchy. On the Irtyſh, in the vicinity of Tobolſk, are the remains of Sibir, the capital. In Siberia and the kirghiſian ſteppe are many ruins of towns, not to mention memorials of inferior conſequence.

† In the muſeum of the imperial academy of ſciences at St. Peterſburg, are preſerved a multitude of veſſels, diadems, weapons, military trophies, ornaments of dreſs, coins, &c. which have been found in the tartarian tombs on the Volga and in Siberia. They are of gold, ſilver, and copper. The greateſt antiquity of the tombs is eleven hundred years, the leaſt four hundred.

longing to the hiſtory of civilization, which will be found in other parts of this work, we ſhall here be the leſs circumſtantial, and only farther remark, that the Tartars, next to the principal nation *, conſtitute the moſt numerous part of the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire. The branches of this nation which belong to Ruſſia are, the proper Tartars, the Nogayans, the Meſchtſcheryaks, the Baſchkirs, the Kirghiſes, the Bukharians, the Yakutes, and the Teleutes; to which may in ſome ſort be added the tribes of Caucaſus.

1. By the term PROPER TARTARS are underſtood in Ruſſia all thoſe ſtocks, which call themſelves by no other name, and are for the moſt part deſcendants of the inhabitants of thoſe two great ſtates, which the ſucceſſors of Tſchingis erected on the Volga and in Siberia. We will, therefore, in the account of their preſent condition, follow this diviſion, firſt making ourſelves acquainted with the KAPTSCHAK, and afterwards with the SIBERIAN TARTARS.

The ſtate of Kaptſchak, which Baaty, the kinſman of the great Tſchinghis, had founded, fell, as we have above related, in the year 1441, into four khanates: Kazan, Aſtrakhan, Kaptſchak, and the Krim. The firſt three were, ſomewhat more than a hundred years afterwards, conquered by the Ruſſians; but the fourth of theſe ſtates preſerved its

* Not long ſince it was ſo. At preſent probably the Poles are more numerous than the Tartars.

independency above two hundred and thirty years longer. At preſent they all together form a part of the ruſſian empire.

The khanate of Kaptſchak, which, from the time of its ſeparation in 1441, has had its principal ſeat in the plain which is now called the aſtrakhan-ſteppe, came the earlieſt to its downfal. So long ago as the year 1506 it loſt its laſt khan, and was divided among the ſovereigns of Kazan, Aſtrakhan, and the Krim, on which at length it came to Ruſſia by the conqueſt of the two former ſtates. Theſe repeated ſubjugations had reduced the kaptſchak Tartars to an inſignificant reſidue, which now, removed from its antient homeſtead, dwells among Baſchkirs and Kirghiſes, though ſtill retaining its appellation and the memory of its origin.

The khanate of Kazan ſubſiſted as a peculiar ſtate till the year 1552, when it was conquered by tzar Ivan II. and incorporated for ever with the ruſſian empire. The city of Kazan had been built in the year 1257, by a ſon of Baaty; this khanate aſſerted its independency about the ſame time [1441] when the Krim disjoined itſelf from Kaptſchak. — The preſent kazan Tartars are but a feeble remnant of what they were, partly conſiſting of thoſe who remained in their old ſeats, and partly ſuch as ſettled as fugitives in other diſtricts of Ruſſia. They principally dwell at preſent in the governments of Kazan, Simbirſk, Riaſan, Viatka, Perme, and Ufa (particularly in the orenburg diſtrict of that government);

ment); their number is indeed upon the whole conſiderable, but in no degree proportionate to the idea we form of their antient population, from hiſtorical accounts; for, as far as we are able to conclude from particular ſtatements, they cannot amount to far above a hundred thouſand. Theſe Tartars form the root of the nation in Ruſſia; they being not only unmingled, but are alſo of a ſuperior civilization to moſt of the remaining branches of their brethren.

The khanate of Aſtrakhan aroſe ſoon after that of Kazan, likewiſe from a detached part of Kaptſchak, and, in the year 1554, fell into the hands of the victorious Ivan. The preſent city of Aſtrakhan, however, is not the tartarian chief ſeat, which was conquered and deſtroyed by that tzar: the ruins of the latter being ſtill to be ſeen ſomewhat higher up on the weſtern bank of the Volga.—The preſent ASTRAKHAN TARTARS are for the moſt part Nogayans. They are diſtinguiſhed into town, village, and tent Tartars. The firſt dwell in Aſtrakhan, the ſecond in ſix villages near aſtrakhan, and the tent-Tartars wander about the Caſpian. At the conqueſt of Aſtrakhan, the town and village Tartars reckoned themſelves at twenty-five thouſand bows; in the year 1715 there were ſtill twelve thouſand of them; but in 1772 they were only twelve hundred, and of the tent-Tartars ſcarcely two thouſand kettles or families. This decline proceeds from their rambling diſpoſition, ſo often moving them to change

their homeſtead: they went off ſingly and in companies, to the caucaſean and krimean Tartars, to the Baſchkirs and even to the Kirghiſes.

The khanate of the Krim, which, as far down as to the year 1783, ſtill conſtituted a peculiar ſtate, now alſo belongs to the ruſſian empire. As the hiſtory of the peninſula of the Krimea commences long before the origin of the great kaptſchakian empire, and the fortunes of that country excited an intereſt even in the poliſhed nations of antiquity, it cannot well be conſidered as a uſeleſs deviation from our plan, if we devote a few lines to the earlier ſtate of this province, previous to the poſſeſſion of it by the Tartars.

The firſt known inhabitants of the Krim were Kimmerians, a great and martial people of the race of the Thracians. Of all their extenſive poſſeſſions, which were raviſhed from them by the Skythians, they retained the Krim the longeſt. Six hundred and fifty-five years before the chriſtian æra, they were, it ſeems, driven from the plain by theſe their ſtronger neighbours; but they maintained their ſtation in the mountains, under the name of Taurians, or mountaineers. From them the whole peninſula obtained the appellation Taurica (Tavrika). In the former half of the ſixth century Greeks began to ſettle here. The Mileſians built Pantikapæum or Boſphorus *, and Theodoſia †; the

* In the tartarian, Kertſch; in ruſs, Vosfor.

† In tartarian, Keffa; ruſs, Feodoſia.

pontic

pontic Heraclians and the Delians, Kherſon. The commerce which the Greeks from that time forward here carried on was uncommonly flouriſhing, and contributed not a little to enlarge their geography.

In the fifth century, the Archæanaktides, a race which originated from Mytilene, founded a monarchy in Boſphorus. About a hundred years afterwards, the Skythians were for the moſt part exterminated by the Sarmates; upon which, by inſenſible degrees, the Taurians extended their dominion over nearly the whole peninſula. They preſſed ſo hard upon the empire of Boſphorus and the free ſtate of Kherſon, that theſe ſubmitted themſelves to the great Mithridates of Pontus in 112, who alſo ſubjugated the Taurians, and conſequently governed the whole Krimea.

About the beginning of the chriſtian æra, the Alanes penetrated into the peninſula, forced the boſphorian kings to pay them tribute, and exterminated the Taurians. — The ſovereignty of the Alanes laſted about a hundred and fifty years, and in their place came the Goths. During the period of their poſſeſſion, (in the time of Diocleſian and Conſtantine the great,) chriſtianity was diſſeminated in the Krimea. Theſe Goths were indeed ſubjected to the Huns, in 375, but they retained their habitations in the mountains, and had their own chriſtian kings. Towards the cloſe of the fourth century the empire of Boſphorus alſo came to an end.

On the downfal of the ſovereignty of the Huns, in 464, the Ungres came hither; who, with the

Bulgarians, conquered alſo the countries between the Don and the Dnieſtr. A part of them went back again to Aſia, and the reſt were obliged to ſubmit [679] to the Khazares *, who likewiſe compelled the Goths in the mountains and the grecian cities to be tributary to them. In the year 840 the province of Kherſon was marked out by the emperor Theophilus, which compriſed all the grecian cities and places in the Krim and the Kuban; for though theſe were equally tributary to the Khazares, they however acknowledged the ſupremacy of the byzantine court.

The Ungres and Khazares were again [802] ſubdued by the Petſchenegers or Kanglians; who, about the middle of the eleventh century, were forced in their turn to reſign the dominion to the Komanes (Uzes or Polovtzes). This people alſo extorted a tribute from the krimean Greeks and Goths. — About this time the city Sugdaya (now Sudak) roſe into ſuch conſideration by its commerce, that all the grecian poſſeſſions in the Krim received the name of Sugdania. Till the year 1204 theſe had always acknowledged the ſovereignty of Byzantium: they were now independent.

To the Komanes at length ſucceeded the Mongoles or Tartars in the ſovereignty of this peninſula; and thenceforward [1237] the Krim formed a province of the kaptſchakian empire. Now detached

* From that time the peninſula was called Khazaria.

tartarian

tartarian princes, to whom the name of Ulutz-beys were given, roamed about the plain with their hordes. The Greeks and Goths paid tribute to the Mongoles, as they had before done to the Komanes; alſo ſeveral Tſcherkaſſians ſettled here. From the city of Krim, to which the Mongoles carried on a great trade, the whole peninſula obtained the name by which it was uſually called till the year 1783.

While the Latins were maſters of Conſtantinople, they, eſpecially the Venetians, proſecuted a very important commerce to the Krim and to Taman (Matriga); but in later times the Genoeſe appropriated it excluſively to themſelves, and in the bloody wars that broke out in conſequence, they gained the ſuperiority at various times. By permiſſion of the Mongoles, they rebuilt Keffa, and made that city the centre of their commerce: they conquered Soldaya (Sudak) and Cembalo (Balukſava;) they paid indeed duties and impoſts to the Mongoles, when they were in full force, but when the hordes were diſturbed by inteſtine commotions, they even bid them defiance, and the princes of the krimean plains were ordinarily elected and depoſed at the diſcretion of the Genoeſe. About this time two branches of the indian commerce found their way to theſe regions: the one over the Amoor, the Caſpian, and through Aſtrakhan to Tana; the other by the way of Bagdat and Tauris, to Trebizond and Sevaſtopolis. Tana was poſſeſſed at the ſame time by the Genoeſe and the Venetians, but under mongolian ſovereignty.

On the fall of the ſtate of Kaptſchak, the Krim was formed into a peculiar khanate, the founder whereof was Hadſchy-Gheray, about 1441. From that period the Tartars dated their dominion, though the khans were ſtill deſcendants from the houſe of Tſchinghis-khan. The proper founder of the tartar-krimean ſtate, Mengly-Gheray, who, in the fifteenth century, through the aſſiſtance of the Ottomans, had come to the complete ſovereignty of the * peninſula, ſubmitted himſelf as a vaſſal to the porte, which ſoon

* Mengly-Gheray was a deſcendant of the Tſchinghiſes; and, while yet very young, was taken priſoner in an engagement by the Genoeſe, who cauſed him to be well-educated, and in all reſpects treated like a prince. On being driven to extremities by the Tartars, they ſent the young Mengly, with ſome of the principal Genoeſes, to Conſtantinople, for the purpoſe of moving Mohammed II. to take them under his protection. The ſultan ſhewed great affection to Mengly; and, when the tartars by their diſſenſions had ruined the interior commerce of the country, they petitioned Mohammed to give them a khan of their own; he appointed this young prince to that ſtation, who, on his part, acknowledged the paramount ſupremacy of the porte. This ſtate of dependence not proving agreeable to the Tartars, Mengly, not long after his arrival in the Krim, was obliged to apply for auxiliary troops of the Turks, with which he not only [1475] reduced the Tartars to obedience, but even annihilated the genoeſe authority in the peninſula. But when Mengly had augmented the forces of his ſtate by theſe conqueſts and by the addition of many tartarian colonies, and was thinking to withdraw himſelf from the ſupremacy of the porte, the Turks ſent garriſons into the principal towns, and reduced the khan to a dependence, which afterwards, and particularly from the year 1584, grew into a complete ſubjection.

arrogated

arrogated the right of impoſing ſea-tolls on their trade, to keep forts in their country, and at length even to ſet up and to depoſe their khans at pleaſure. Under this auſtere deſpotiſm the Krim ſubſiſted till the year 1774, when Catharine II. by the peace of Kutſchuk-Kainardgi, procured the independence of the khan, and obtained for the ruſſian empire ſome ſtrong-places on the frontiers, as a ſafeguard againſt the predatory incurſions of the Tartars. A few years afterwards [1783] the whole peninſula, as is well-known, came to Ruſſia; and, at preſent, together with the eaſtern Nogay, or the krimean ſteppe, forms a government, under the name of the Tauridan province.

The Krim had but few tartar inhabitants, when Mengly-Gheray was the ruler of it. On occaſion of the war which he carried on with his relative branches on the Volga, he brought many thouſand Nogays with him to the Krim, whom he obliged to ſettle there. The great population of this peninſula, to which belong Armenians, Greeks, Turks, Jews, &c, beſides Tartars, had already much declined, during the troubles, under the laſt khan. The Armenians and Greeks ſubmitted themſelves [1779] for the moſt part voluntarily to the ruſſian empire, and retired to the former government of Azof, or what at preſent is that of Ekatarinoſlaf; and the Tartars fled in ſuch great numbers to Avchaſia and to the Ottomans, that credible eye-witneſſes think they cannot rate the population of the Krim in the year 1782 higher than at fifty thouſand men.

We

We now proceed to the SIBERIAN TARTARS, who form, as it were, the ſecond line of the proper Tartars in Ruſſia. Siberia contains ſo great a multitude of tartarian colonies, and many of them appear to have been ſo long naturalized in the country, that, from the perplexity and the contradictions that prevail in the accounts of them, we are not capable of tracing out a general and connected hiſtory of theſe tribes. We will, therefore, take under this head the events of the mongole-tartarian ſtate in Siberia, and lay them as a ground-work; after which we will endeavour to arrange by this clue ſuch hiſtorical fragments as may ſerve to throw a light on ſeveral diſtinct nations.

The mongole-tartarian ſtate in Siberia, or the khanate of Turan, was, as has already been curſorily mentioned, founded about the middle of the thirteenth century by Scheibany, a brother, or kinſman, of Baaty, and took its origin in the region of the Aral-mountains and on the river Yaik (now Ural), where this khan had inherited poſſeſſions from Baaty, which he preſently enlarged by conqueſts in Siberia to a very conſiderable territory. The firſt reſidence of the tartar-ſiberian princes was on the river Tura, on the ſpot where the preſent Tiumen ſtands *, and was called, in honour of the

* Tiumen is a circle-town in the tobolſkoi diſtrict of the government of Tobolſk, two hundred and fifty-four verſts from that chief city. The Tartars at Tiumen ſtill call this town Tſchinghis, or Tſchinghi-Tura.

grand-

grand-khan, Tſchinghidin: afterwards this city was razed, and the khans took their ſeat, perhaps for fear of the attacks of the Kazanians, on the eaſtern ſhore of the Irtyſh, where they built the city Iſker, which afterwards got the name of Sibir, and lies in the vicinage of the preſent Tobolſk. The laſt khan of Turan, previous to the ruſſian conqueſt of Siberia, was Kutſchum, a Tſchinghiſe of the kaptſchak lineage, who went from the Kaſatſchia-Orda to Siberia, and ſubjected this ſtate to him, either with the free will of the inhabitants, or by the right of the conqueror. This prince was the firſt who eſtabliſhed the mohammedan religion in Siberia; for although that faith had found admiſſion much earlier among the Tartars, yet there was a neceſſity for all the perſuaſives of enthuſiaſm, and even the coercion of arms, to render its adoption more general. The arrival of the Ruſſians interrupted theſe converſions ere they could be rendered complete; and the remoter provinces of the khanate were ſtill imbued with paganiſm.

The circuit of the empire, of which Kutſchum was ſovereign, cannot indeed be accurately ſtated; but certain it is, that the Tartars on the Irtyſh and the Tobol and in the ſteppe Baraba, as well as the Oſtiaks and Vogules in their neighbourhood, are become his ſubjects. The Tartars on the Tura and the Iſet have, according to ſome accounts, formed a peculiar ſtate independent of Kutſchum, whoſe khan had his ſeat at Tiumen. — Of the diſcovery

diſcovery and conqueſt of this country by the Ruſſians, mention has already been made in ſeveral places of this ſection *, we ſhall therefore here paſs it over in ſilence, and proceed at once to notice the ſeveral branches of which the ſiberian Tartars of the preſent day conſiſt.

Although the generality of theſe colonies came not till the thirteenth century, on the aggrandizement of the mongole-tartarian territory, yet there are alſo ſome ſtems which ſeem to have been long before that epocha in poſſeſſion of ſeveral diſtricts of Siberia. If we may judge from their oral traditions, they eſteem themſelves in ſome meaſure the original inhabitants of that country; but as there is a total failure of hiſtorical accounts on this head, and the generality of the tartarian ſtems have ſo much intermingled with the other ſiberian nations, that their deſcent is ſcarcely to be aſcertained, nothing remains for us to do but to follow the political diſtribution which is adopted in the records of the ruſſian chancery, which diſtinguiſh the ſiberian Tartars into various ſtems according to the diſtricts which they inhabit. As theſe now, both in their phyſical and moral individuality, differ greatly from each other, it will be neceſſary to mention the moſt remarkable of them by name.

Among theſe are the TURALINZES, one of the firſt colonies who conſtructed for themſelves per-

* See the articles, Ruſſians, Siberian-kozaks, and Mongoles.

manent

manent habitations, when the Tartars ſubjugated Siberia in the thirteenth century; thence alſo their name, (from Tura, in the tartar language, a town,) which ſignifies the ſame with ſettlers. Ever ſince their arrival they have inhabited the region on both ſides of the river, which from them is denominated the Tura, between the Tavda and the Iſet, in the ekatarinenburg and tobolſkoi diſtricts of the governments of Perme and Tobolſk. Their oldeſt fixed ſeat was the forementioned city Tſchinghidin; but when Yermak made the conqueſt of theſe parts, the khan Yepanſa reſided higher up the Tura in a city, which, after their reſtoration by the Ruſſians, was named Turinſk, and bears this name at preſent, though it is alſo called by the Tartars Yepantſchina.

The TOBOLSKIAN TARTARS have their appellation from the river Tobol, on which they dwell, and are the deſcendants of the inhabitants of Iſker or Sibir, their antient capital, which being reduced to a heap of rubbiſh after Yermak's conqueſt, they abandoned, and inſtead of it the Ruſſians afterwards built Tobolſk. They muſt not be confounded with the tartar inhabitants of Tobolſk, who are a bukharian colony, as we ſhall ſee farther on. Their number amounts to upwards of four thouſand males.

The TOMSKIAN TARTARS dwell on both ſides of the river Tom, above and below the city of Tomſk; but in the town itſelf is a colony of Bukharians.

Bukharians. According to the cenſus of 1760 they were only taxed at four hundred and thirty males. — The KRASNOYARSKIAN and KUSNETZKIAN TARTARS are remains of antient ſtems, who are everywhere much alike, and alſo bear a great reſemblance to the mongolian tribes, which is eaſily explained from the cloſe intercourſe in which theſe races lived during their oppreſſion by the Soongares. — The TARTARS OF THE OBY conſiſt of ſixteen voloſts, of which twelve have permanent habitations on the Oby, and the others nomadiſe. In the year 1766 the former counted one thouſand one hundred and fifteen, and the latter five hundred males. — The TSCHULYMSKIAN TARTARS dwelt formerly between the Oby and the Yeniſſey, but, conſtantly preſſed by the Soongares and Kirghiſes, not always in the ſame diſtrict. Since they have enjoyed protection and repoſe under the ruſſian ſovereignty, they inhabit the whole region along the river Tſchulym, and now amount to between five and ſix thouſand bows. — The BARABINZES inhabit the country between the Oby and the Irtyſh, which is called the Baraba, or the barabinzian ſteppe; and, as far as their tradition goes, they are the proper owners of it. At the conqueſt of Siberia by the Ruſſians, they were under Kutſchum-khan, and in the year 1595 came into ſubjection to Ruſſia. Since that time they have been often plundered on the incurſions of the Soongares and Kirghiſes, and even compelled by the former to pay them a yearly

tribute; but ſince the ſiberian frontier-line has been eſtabliſhed, they have enjoyed complete tranquillity. They are about five thouſand bows in number. — The KATSCHINTZES, on the left ſhore of the Yeniſſey, are taxed at the rate of about a thouſand bows, and have poſſeſſed their territory longer than the hiſtory of that country reaches. — The KISTIM and TULIBERT TARTARS, on the left bank of the Tom, form two voloſts, and approach the Teleutes. — The BIRIUSSES, with the Katſchintzes, come nearer to the proper Tartars, and conſiſt of about a hundred and ſeventy bows. — The ABINTZES, in the ſuperior region of the Tom, reckon themſelves at ſome hundred bows, and likewiſe reſemble the Teleutes. — The SAYANE TARTARS name themſelves Sœycen, from the well known ſayane mountains, in which they nomadiſe on the left ſhore of the Yeniſſey. They pay taxes for a hundred and fifty bows. — The BELTIRS wander with the Sayanes and Biriuſſes on the Abakan, and may be eſtimated at about a hundred and fifty bows. — The VERCHOTOMSKIAN TARTARS conſtitute a peculiar ſtem, which numbers only about two hundred bows. They nomadiſe about the ſources of the Tom, and reſemble the Abintzes. — Beſides theſe there are yet ſeveral inſignificant ſtems, as the MELESSIAN, the ARALIAN, the UDINSKIAN, the YARINSKIAN TARTARS, and others. The tribes before-mentioned are, however, in general much more numerous than we have here ſtated their population to be, as the

the enumerations in theſe extenſive deſerts, and from their rambling way of life, are attended with great difficulties. All the regions we have noticed are in the governments of Tobolſk and Kolhyvan, and partly in the eaſtern half of that of Perme, beyond the Ural-mountains, which, therefore, are to be regarded as the peculiar home-ſeat of the ſiberian Tartars.

2. We come now to the ſecond main branch of the Tartars, the MANKATS or NOGAYANS. Of this great and numerous people we have no authentic and connected hiſtory. According to the arabic and grecian writers it owes its origin to a mongole chieftain, named Nogay, who, towards the termination of the thirteenth century, was ſent with a ſtrong body of troops by a khan of Kaptſchak to conquer the countries lying beyond the Euxine, and who actually ſubjected the regions from the Don to the Danube, but afterwards ſhook off the ſovereignty of the khans of Kaptſchak, and became the founder of an empire, which, however, preſently fell to pieces under his ſucceſſors. Notwithſtanding the annihilation of this ſtate, the name of its founder continued to live in the nation which he had governed; and it is very probable that the Nogayans ſpread themſelves from the Volga to the Ural, and thence again as far as the Irtyſh *, and were not driven out of

* In the territory of the town of Ufa is ſtill in being what is called the Nogay-road; and on the Irtyſh is a region which bears the name of the Nogayan ſteppe.

theſe

theſe regions by the Kalmuks till the æra of the ruſſian ſovereignty. — They now inhabit the ſteppes on the north ſide of the caucaſean mountains and the Euxine quite to the other ſide of the Danube, and conſiſt of ſeveral larger and ſmaller ſtems, which at times are known to change their place of abode, and even their names. The Nogayans ſubject to Ruſſia are partly in what was formerly called the eaſtern Nogay or the krimean ſteppe, partly in the Kuban, and partly diſperſed about the Volga and in other regions of the empire.

The EASTERN NOGAY forms the northern larger half of the province of Taurida, denominated by the Ruſſians the krimean ſteppe. It is about twice as large as the peninſula of the Krim, and was formerly much larger; but in the year 1739, by the peace of Belgrade, more than the half of it came under the ruſſian ſceptre, which part belongs at preſent to the government of Ekatarinoſlaf. The remainder, which likewiſe had formed a part of the ſtates of the krimean khans, fell to Ruſſia on her taking poſſeſſion of the Krim in 1783; and this now conſtitutes the circles Melitopol and Dneprovſk in the province of Taurida.

The eaſtern Nogay has had almoſt always the ſame fortunes and been inhabited from the ſame people with the Krim. Kimmerians, Skythians, Sarmates, Alanes, Goths, Huns, Ungres, and Bulgarians, Petſchenegrans, Komanes, and laſtly the Tartars, have ſucceſſively inhabited this country.

At length thoſe Tartars who are called Nogayans ſettled here, and ſtill at this moment form a conſiderable part of its population. — Till the year 1770 the ſtems of Yediſchkul, Dſhembuluk, and Kurgœs reſided here. The horde Dſhembuluk had formerly their abode on the Dſhem (the river Yemba) in the kirghiſian ſteppe, where they were ſubjugated by a khan of the Torgots. Still at the commencement of the eighteenth century free Nogayans wandered in this region; the famous kalmuk khan Ayuka drove them, however, farther weſtward acroſs the river Ural and the Volga, upon which Peter the great conveyed them to their kindred-races on the rivers Kuma and Kuban, excepting the chunduro-vian-nogayan horde, whom he declared to be ſubjects of the Kalmuks, and ſent them to them. During the troubles that aroſe upon khan Ayuka's death among the Kalmuks, the Nogayans in their neighbourhood ſuffered ſo much, that the hordes Dſhembuluk and Yediſan thought it expedient to withdraw in 1715, to the number of more than ten thouſand families, to the Kuban, and to put themſelves under the protection of the porte. Hence the greater part of them were tranſplanted into the eaſtern Nogay, whither, a few years after, they were followed by the reſt of the hordes. During the war before the laſt between Ruſſia and the Porte, in 1770, the two hordes betook themſelves to the Kuban, under the ruſſian ſovereignty, which example the Yediſchkul and Akermenian or Belgo-

rodian

rodian horde ſoon followed. By the peace of Kutſchuk-Kainardgi they were all made over to the krimean khan, and on the taking poſſeſſion of his ſtates in the year 1783 they came back again to the ruſſian empire.

The ſecond and at preſent the only main-ſeat of the Nogayans is the Kuban. This country too has experienced various and remarkable circumſtances. As far back as we can with any certainty recur to hiſtory, there dwelt along the coaſts of the ſea of Azof, from the Don to the northernmoſt exit of the river Kuban, a nation, or rather a mixture of people, which were wont to be compriſed under the name of Sarmates; at the other mouths of the Kuban, and about the Euxine, dwelt nations of kimmerian or thracian deſcent. Theſe coaſts were very early viſited by Phœnicians and Kavians, afterwards even by the Greeks. In the former half of the ſixth century before the chriſtian æra, Ionians and Æolians ſettled at the mouths of the Don and the Kuban, and there built trading towns and cities, which in a ſhort time flouriſhed and became wealthy. The towns on the Kuban fell at the ſame time with Pantikapæum, under the dominion of the Archæanaktides; two-and-forty years afterwards Spartacus became their ruler; and under his ſucceſſors the boſphorian kings, they lived till the time of the great Mithridates.

After the Sarmates were for the moſt part gone to Europe, five years before Alexander, we find the

Yaza-

Yazamates as the inhabitants of this entire tract of country. After them appear other nations, from thoſe ſwarms of people who were called Alanes, and of whom remains are ſtill preſerved in the Tſcherkeſſians, the Chechians, and Avchaſes. — About the year 112 before the birth of Chriſt, the grecian cities fell under the power of the great Mithridates; and ſome of his ſucceſſors were ſo puiſſant, that they reduced all the inferior ſtems, about the coaſts of the ſea of Azof as far as to the Don, to their obedience. On the incurſion of the Huns, in 375, many of the Alanes were driven to Europe, the poſſeſſions of thoſe who remained behind contracted, and the boſphorian empire demoliſhed. Ninety years afterwards came the Ungres and Bulgares in the place of the Huns; they proceeded to conquer the Krim and all the country between the Don and the Dnieſtr. In the year 679, however, the Chazares ſubjugated all the nations of the coaſts, from the roads of Keffa as far as the Don, and extended their conqueſts into Europe. The empire which they here founded laſted 336 years, and was for a long time the mightieſt and moſt flouriſhing ſtate in theſe eaſtern regions. By the inroads of the Petſchenegrans, and the flight of the Ungres [882], the Chazares loſt all their european poſſeſſions: they retained nothing but the country between the Kuban and the Don, and the tract on the ſouthern and eaſtern ſhore of the laſt-mentioned river. This latter region was raviſhed from

from them [965] by the Ruſſians combined with the byzantine Greeks, who made themſelves maſters of the countries bordering on the ſea of Azof [1015], completely overturned the chazarian ſtate, and erected a diſtinct principality on the iſle of Taman, to which both the Chazares and the Ziches [ruſs, Yaſy] were for a long time tributary *.

It appears, that towards the end of the eleventh century, while Ruſſia was torn by inteſtine broils, the principality of Taman was loſt to that empire. The Komanes or Polovtzes took poſſeſſion of the north-eaſtern part of the Kuban, as did the Ziches and other tſcherkeſſian ſtems of the ſouthern and weſtern diſtricts. At length [1221] the Mongoles made their firſt attack. The Komanes were either maſſacred, or expelled, or ſubdued by theſe perpetual diſturbers of the world: but the Ziches fought bravely for their liberty, and could not be made to ſubmit till the year 1277, when they were overpowered by Mangu-Timur-khan and the famous Nogay.

* This is the famous principality of Tmutarakan, mentioned by the ruſſian annaliſts from the latter half of the tenth century to the year 1127, and concerning the ſituation whereof ſo many and ſuch various conjectures have been formed. This matter is now reduced to certainty by the inſcription on a marble diſcovered a few years ſince, that this principality was on the iſland of Taman, and the capital of it ſtood on the ſpot where the antient Phanagoria ſtood. See the privy-counſellor Muſſin-Puſchkin's hiſtorical diſquiſition on the ſituation of the old ruſſian principality of Tmutarakan in Storch's materials, &c. and at the end of the firſt volume of Tooke's hiſtory of Ruſſia.

Nevertheleſs their ſubmiſſion was always very doubtful and conditional; and they remained, in fact, independent in their woody and mountainous regions. The Ottomans indeed [1484] conquered the cities and forts of Taman, Temryuk, and Atſchuk [Atſchuyef]; but they gained thereby no ſovereignty over the Tſcherkeſſians. A Sandſchak-paſha, till the war of 1770 with Ruſſia, was their viceroy in theſe towns, where they ſhared the moiety of the impoſts with the khan of the Krimea. At the peace of 1774, the ſultan of the Ottomans relinquiſhed his poſſeſſions in theſe parts; but, contrary to treaty, held Taman and Temryuk in a ſtate of ſiege, till the krimean khan, by the aid of the Ruſſians, drove the ottoman garriſons out of them. By the treaty of the year 1783 Ruſſia obtained, together with the Krimea and the eaſtern Nogay, alſo the northern part of the Kuban as far as the promontory of Caucaſus, from which that tract of country with the whole government to which it belongs, has received its name.

At the commencement of the ottoman period the krimean khan had not as yet the ſovereignty of the Kuban, the khan of Aſtrakhan exacting homage as the paramount lord of that diſtrict. Though, properly ſpeaking, it was governed by petty tſcherkeſſian princes, who were dependent on no one. Mohammed Gheray was the firſt krimean khan who attempted to enlarge his authority here; his ſucceſſors proſecuted the war with the Tſcherkeſſians, and

and were conſtantly gaining ground upon them. They tranſplanted hither numerous ſwarms of aſtrakhan Nogays, who had either been carried off by them in war, or who had voluntarily (eſpecially at and after the demolition of the aſtrakhan ſtate) quitted the Volga, and put themſelves under the protection of the krimean khan.

The KUBANIAN NOGAYS, called alſo the little or black Nogays [Kara Nogay] are diſtributed into various hordes or ſtems, whereof the Kaſay-aul and the Naurus-aul are the moſt remarkable, and together compoſe about ten thouſand families. Beſides theſe, here have been for a long time a part of the yediſchkulian and the dſhembulukian hordes; as alſo a ſtem which bears the name of Kiptſchak. In the year 1770 came hither, as has been already mentioned, the hordes Budſhak [Akkermen], Yediſan, Yediſchkul, and Dſhembuluk, from the other ſide of the Don, and were ſtill here in 1783, when the Ruſſians took poſſeſſion of the Kuban. The ſtrength of theſe four ſtems is eſtimated at ſeventy-thouſand bows, and from the teſtimony of an author, who made inquiries on the ſpot, the population of all the eaſtern and kubanian Nogays, a few years ago, amounted to upwards of five hundred thouſand families: but this number is probably exaggerated.

Beſides theſe, who are but lately come under the ruſſian ſovereignty, there are, in various parts of the empire, other remains and colonies of this na-

tion of Nogays. Among which are the ASTRAKHAN TARTARS, who, for the moſt part, compoſe the main ſtem of the preſent Nogays, and of whom we ſpoke more circumſtantially above. — The CHUNDUROVIAN Nogays form a conſiderable horde, nomadiſing on the Achtuba, an arm of the Volga, and numbers about a thouſand yurts. It has already been related in another place *, that a ſtrong cohort of Nogays, who were about to ſpread acroſs the river Ural, were made ſubject to Ayuka, khan of Torgot. Ayuka's ſucceſſor, Donduk Ombo, reduced likewiſe ſeveral thouſand tents of chundorovian Tartars under the dominion of the volgaic horde. When the Torgot in 1770 fled into the Soongarèy, the Chundurovians made themſelves free, by ſecuring themſelves on the iſlands of the Volga under the fort of Kraſnoyarſk. — Beſides theſe, there are ſeveral bodies of Nogays diſperſed among the other Tartars of the empire; accordingly the whole number of Nogays in ſubjection to the ruſſian empire is very conſiderable.

3. The MESCHTSCHERIÆKS, who form an old diſtinct tartarian ſtem, were already known under that name to Neſtor. In the fourteenth century they had their ſeat in the modern government of Niſhney-Novgorod; they afterwards ſettled in the country of the Baſchkirs, for which they were obliged to pay a ground-rent. On account of their

* See the article Œlœt, or Kalmuks.

fidelity

fidelity during ſeveral rebellions of the Baſchkirs, they were freed from this tax, and now dwell among the Baſchkirs and Tartars in the orenburg diſtrict of the government of Ufa, where they amount to about two thouſand families.

4. The BASCHKIRS call themſelves Baſchkurt, and derive their origin partly from the Nogayans, and partly from the Bolgarians. Probably they are Nogayans, whom the Bolgarians adopted among them: their country at leaſt is a part of the antient Bolgaria. They formerly roamed about the ſouthern Siberia under the conduct of their own princes; to avoid the moleſtations of the ſiberian khans they ſettled in their preſent poſſeſſions, ſpread themſelves about the rivers Volga and Ural, and were ſubject to the kazanian khanate. On the overthrow of that ſtate by Ivan II. they voluntarily took refuge under the ruſſian ſceptre; they afterwards however frequently revolted againſt the government, whereby their proſperity, as well as their population, have been conſiderably diminiſhed. In the year 1770 they conſiſted of twenty-ſeven thouſand families, having their homeſtead in the governments of Ufa and Perme.

5. The KIRGHISES, or Kirghis-Kaizaki, call themſelves Sara-Kaizaki [ſteppe-kozaks,] and likewiſe Kirghiſes, probably from the founder of their horde. By their traditions they are originally Nogays; Abulgaſi affirms them to be deſcendants of the primitive Mongoles, who at firſt dwelt about the

the river Ikran in the vicinity of the chineſe wall, and at the general migration and tranſplantation of the mongolian races, travelled into more weſtern regions. But the antient hiſtory of this people is involved in the greater obſcurity and doubt, as, till the ruſſian conqueſt of Siberia, nothing was known of them in Europe. At the time of that conqueſt the Kirghiſes nomadiſed at the ſuperior Yeniſſey, about the Yuſs, the Abakkan, &c. and in the year 1606, they were ſubjected to the ruſſian empire at the ſame time with the Barabinzes. From that period, by their puſillanimity, their faithleſſneſs, their frequent rebellions, and by the ſubjugation of correlative nations, they have got the character of an extremely turbulent and dangerous people. The revolutions which have thereby been produced in their political condition, induced them to remove from the Yeniſſey to the Oby, and gradually farther to the weſt and the ſouth. They at preſent inhabit the prodigious deſert between the Ural and the Irtyſh, denominated by the Ruſſians the Kirghiſian ſteppe, and bordering weſtward on the Caſpian and the government of Caucaſus, northwards on the parts about the Ufa and the Tobol, and eaſtwards on the government of Kolhyvan.

As long as the Kirghiſes have been known to other nations, they have always been divided into three hordes, the great, the middle, and the little hordes: the firſt, from its intrepidity and the protection afforded them by the inacceſſible indian mountains,

tains, is ſtill independent, notwithſtanding the great efforts made by their ſouthern neighbours the Soongarians, to ſubjugate them. The middle and the little hordes have acknowledged the ruſſian ſovereignty ever ſince the year 1731, but have always ſhewn themſelves as unfaithful allies and a very piratical people; for which reaſon lines of ſmall forts have been conſtructed along the frontier rivers. Each of theſe two hordes are eſtimated at thirty thouſand kibitkies or families; but they are probably much ſtronger.

6. The TELEUTES or Telengutes, are thought to have their name from the lake Telengul in the Altay-mountains; they are denominated alſo by the ruſſians the white Kalmuks, becauſe they formerly lived among the Soongarians. Abulgaſi reckons them among the mongolian races: as their ſpeech however is manifeſtly a corrupt tartarian, their origin may more conſiſtently be derived from that nation. In the year 1609 they did homage for the firſt time to the ruſſian empire; but it was not till towards the middle of the ſeventeenth century when ſome ſtems of them removed higher up the Tom, that they became properly ſubjects of Ruſſia: the greater part, however, remained with the Kalmuks. The former dwell partly in the tomſkoi diſtrict of the tobolſkian, partly in the kuſnetſkian circle of the government of Kolhyvan, and their number is ſo ſmall, that they only reckon about five hundred males.

7. The

7. The YAKUTES, who denominate themſelves Socha, muſt formerly have been one people with the Tartars, if we may judge from their language and bodily form. Their antient homeſtead extended from the Sayane-mountains as far as the Angara and the Lena. Perſecuted by the Burætes and Mongoles, they removed down the Lena to their preſent rude and inclement diſtricts, where they are found in the government of Irkutſk on both ſides of that river quite to the Frozen-ocean. In the year 1620 they ſubmitted to the ruſſian conquerors, and at the middle of the preſent century they numbered upwards of forty thouſand bows; but ſince that time they are conſiderably increaſed.

8. In addition to all the tartarian nations we have hitherto mentioned, there are ſtill conſiderable colonies formed of tartarian tribes in various parts of the ruſſian empire. The unbounded religious toleration, the powerful protection and the prudent policy of the ruſſian government, have long rendered that country a refuge not only for ſuch as are fond of change, but to all in general of the injured and oppreſſed among the neighbouring nations. The tartar nations, like all the orientals, being more governed by a roaming diſpoſition, than the Europeans, frequently expoſed to ill-uſage from the caprice of their arbitrary lords and the inroads of their neighbours, find in Ruſſia not only all the benefits of civil ſociety in a far higher degree, but alſo numerous ſettlements of their collateral races domeſticated

domeſticated there, with whom they are intimately connected by language, manners, and religion. All theſe motives in conjunction are ſo alluring to the ſurrounding tartarian nations, that the numbers of them who migrate annually to Ruſſia may be conſidered as a conſiderable ſource of population. Beſides the ſingle arrivals which take place with all the tartar ſtems in the empire, andwhich incorporate themſelves with them, and therefore loſe their diſtinctions among them, there are, particularly in Siberia and in the governments of Ufa, Kazan, and Caucaſus, whole colonies, more or leſs conſiderable, of theſe fugitives, who, like the Terpteres mentioned among the finniſh races, in ſome ſort form new ſtems. Thus, for example, the fort Nagaibak, on the Ik, (a river of the Kama,) and many frontier places of Siberia, Orenburg, and Aſtrakhan, contain ſuch mingled bodies of tartars. — Of the nogaik hordes, even before their entire ſubjection, conſiderable ſtems ſettled ſingly among the Tartars of Kazan, Ufa, and Orenburg, but eſpecially among the Baſchkirs. — In Aſtrakhan, Kitzliar, Moſdok, and in general about the Terek, are numerous bodies of the caucaſean nations, particularly of ſuch as are not under the ruſſian protection. As we ſhall ſpeak of theſe in the ſequel, we paſs them by at preſent, in order to caſt an eye upon the ſtill independent tartar tribes, of whom conſiderable colonies are found in the ruſſian empire. To theſe principally belong the Bukharians, Chivayans, Taſchkentians, Turkoſtans, Aralians, Truchmenians, and Karakalpaks.

The

The LESSER BUKHARIA lies, as every one knows, contiguous to the Caſpian and the lake Aral in the eaſt, and is ſurrounded by Perſia, the northern India, and ſeveral petty tartarian ſtates. The capital Bukhara is by the ſtrait road ſcarce thirty days journey (about fifteen hundred verſts) from Orenburg. — The Bukharians affirm themſelves to be unmixed deſcendants of the Uzes and the modern Turkomans, who ſettled here at the time of the military campaigns in the weſt. Their form of government is monarchical; but the khan is elected from the princely family, his power is limited, and he may be depoſed from his dignity, though this caſe ſeldom happens.

The ruſſian empire has from time immemorial poſſeſſed very conſiderable COLONIES OF BUKHARIANS in Siberia. The tartarian ſuburbs or ſlobodes at Tobolſk, Tara, and Tomſk, are entirely, and thoſe of Turinſk and Tiumen for the moſt part, inhabited by Bukharians; there are alſo many of them in the neighbourhood of thoſe cities, where they live either in particular villages or among the Tartars. In the Baſchkirèy are two Bukharian voloſts; and, beſides them a multitude of ſmaller ſettlements in the government of Ufa, in Aſtrakhan, and other places. All theſe colonies taken in the aggregate compoſe greatly above twenty thouſand males. The civil eſtabliſhments have moſtly ariſen from the trading caravans, and ſtill continue to receive ſome augmentation by the merchants who ſtay behind.

The Bukharians in the villages, and thoſe diſperſed among the Tartars, are almoſt all fugitives who have eſcaped from kirghiſian bondage.

The CHIVAYANS or Chivinſes, who are likewiſe called Charaſians, dwelt ſome time ago about the lower parts of the river Ural. Their preſent country lies on the eaſt ſide of the lake Aral, and borders on Perſia, the leſſer Bukharia, and other tartarian ſtates. The diſtance of their capital, Chiva, from Orenburg, is computed at only twelve or fifteen days journey (ſix or ſeven hundred verſts). Their political conſtitution is ſimilar to that of the Bukharians. — TURKOSTAN, or Turkeſtan, has long ceaſed to be the moſt flouriſhing and powerful ſtate of theſe regions. It conſiſts ſolely at preſent of the moderate town of that name, which was lately ſubjected to the middle kirghiſian horde. — TASCHKENT is a ſomewhat larger ſtate, and has a khan of its own, who, as with the Chivayans, is elected from the kirghiſian princely races, and ſometimes acknowledges the patronage of the Kirghiſes, and ſometimes the ſovereignty of the Soongarians. Both nations are only diſtinguiſhed from the Bukharians and Chivinſes by their greater poverty. The colonies, in the ruſſian empire, of theſe three tribes, are attached either to the Bukharians or to the other tartars; their number is by no means great, and they have ſettled here either as merchants or as eſcaped kirghiſian captives.

The ARALIANS inhabit the coaſts and iſlands of the lake Aral. They are an Uſbekian race, choſing its

its independent khans out of the kirghiſian princely family, and not ſtronger than about five thouſand bows. They live not in towns, but, however, in permanent villages, and are in all reſpects very like the Chivinſes. They have no opportunity for trade; therefore they come to Ruſſia on no other occaſions than when any of them are happy enough to eſcape from the kirghiſian ſlavery. In ſuch caſes they ſettle in the firſt tartarian colony they come to.

The parent-ſtock of the TRUCHMENIANS, or the ancient Turkomans, who are called by the Ruſſians terekmenian tartars, ſtill nomadiſe on the eaſtern coaſts of the Caſpian, where their territory extends as far as the lake Aral and Perſia. The Truchmenians, of whom we are now to ſpeak, poſſeſs on the weſtern ſide of the Caſpian that part of the caucaſean mountains which ſtretches from that ſea as far as the province Kakhetty of the georgian ſtate. The generality of the diſtricts have their own common princes; others form particular ſtates, and ſome are under foreign ſovereignty.

In the former half of the eighteenth century a part of theſe hordes fell under the yoke of the torgotan prince Ayuka, and on that occaſion many truchmenian families withdrew to the Tartars of Orenburg, Ufa, and Aſtrakhan. In the year 1770, when the before-mentioned flight of the Kalmuks enſued, the remainder of theſe people, who had till then been under the dominion of the Kalmuks, ſet themſelves at liberty, and at preſent nomadiſe

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free ſubjects of the ruſſian empire, about the mouth of the Kuma. Their number is continually increaſing by new comers, who eſcape from the Kirghiſes, and are found though ſingly among the Tartars of Orenburg and Ufa, yet to no ſmall amount.

The KARAKALPAKS, laſtly, call themſelves Kara-Kiptſchak, and inhabit the diſtricts on the Syr Darya, a conſiderable river ſpringing from the lake Aral. They divide themſelves, according to their poſition, into the upper and the nether horde. —Previous to the origin of the kazanian khanate they removed to the Volga; where, preſſed by the Nogays, they marched like the Chivinſes, not as other nations did, to the weſt, but back towards the eaſt, into their preſent ſeats. About the year 1742 the nether horde, then conſiſting of thirty-thouſand kibitkas, implored the ruſſian protection; but the Kirghiſes, againſt whom they were deſirous of ſecuring themſelves, took ſuch ſanguinary vengeance, that the greater part of them were exterminated, and the reſt were obliged to return to the upper horde. As they but ſeldom have the courage to flee from the kirghiſian captivity, their number in Ruſſia is but ſmall.

The great ſimilarity between the Bukharians, Chivinſians, Turkoſtanians, and Taſchkentians, affords room to ſuppoſe, with ſome probability, that theſe nations have all had the ſame origin; and even they themſelves affirm that they are only detached ſtems of the Turkoſtanians. The Aralians and the

Truchmenians differ from them in many reſpects, and the Karakalpaks in ſtill more, and appear to have always been diſtinct hordes.

9. In concluſion to this enumeration of tartarian nations come the TRIBES OF MOUNT CAUCASUS. From the emigrations occaſioned by the military expeditions of the Mongoles and Tartars, the caucaſean mountains, owing to their ſtrong, frequently inacceſſible formation, together with the fertility of their ſoil, have preſerved not only very many remains of their expelled and fugitive inhabitants, but even ſo many colonies of the conquerors, that no other part of the earthly globe, of the ſame dimenſions, holds ſuch a variety of nations. As the victorious Tartars, who as it were ſwallowed up the reſiduary tribes and habituated them by degrees to their mode of life, their manners, and their faith, have alſo confounded theſe nations and corrupted their languages; accordingly, from the difficulty of reducing them to their primitive ſtocks, they are uſually all compriſed, the Georgians excepted, under the denomination of MOUNTAIN-TARTARS. Several of theſe tribes are properly ruſſian ſubjects; others are vaſſals, and others again are protected by Perſia and the Porte, or have hitherto maintained their independence. As theſe relations are occaſionally changed according to circumſtances, thoſe who cannot properly be claſſed among the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire ſhould not be entirely paſſed over; yet we will principally notice only thoſe nations

nations who inhabit the northern half of Caucaſus.

We here find, beſides the Nogayans and Truchmenians, which have already been pronounced to be genuine Tartars, three particularly numerous and nearly related tribes compoſing the groundplot of moſt of the caucaſean nations: TSCHERKESSIANS, AVCHASIANS, and ZICHIANS. — In the term TSCHERKESSIANS are frequently compriſed not only the two other ſtems juſt mentioned, but even ſeveral petty tribes of Caucaſus, as the Tſchetſchengians, the Kiſtenzians, &c. The people properly bearing this name inhabit that part of Caucaſus which is called the great and the little Kabardia, the iſlands of the lower Kuban, and the ſouthern bank of that river. They denominate themſelves Adige, that is, iſlanders; by the Ruſſians they are called Tſcherkeſſi, and by the reſt of Europe Circaſſians.

This nation is formed of the relics of the mingled ſwarm uſually comprehended under the appellation Alanians, and who, as we have before * ſeen, ſettled on the northern ſide of Caucaſus ſoon after the Yazamates. The Tſcherkeſſians, or races collaterally related to them, as, for example, the Zichians and Avchaſians, gradually took poſſeſſion of the ſouthern regions adjacent to the Kuban. During the empire of the Chazares, the byzantine emperors appear to have exerciſed or at leaſt to have poſtulated a ſort of paramount ſupremacy over this

* See the hiſtory of the kubanian Nogays.

nation, becauſe the Zichians were reckoned among their provinces. When the Ruſſians erected a ſtate upon the iſland and in the city of Taman, [Tmutarakhan*,] the Zichians were tributary to them. But after the Komanes or Polovtzes had conquered the north-eaſtern part of the Kuban, they put the tſcherkeſſian ſtems in poſſeſſion of the ſouthern and weſtern, and extended themſelves afterwards continually farther and farther to the north. The Zichians in the Kuban bravely maintained their freedom againſt the attacks of the Mongoles or Tartars, but were at length in 1277 compelled to yield the victorious arms of Mangu-Timur and Nogay. Yet the ſubjection of the Zichians and the other Tſcherkeſſians was by no means confirmed, and they remained truly independent in the upper regions of the mountains. They were even at that period ſtill in poſſeſſion of the whole eaſtern coaſt of the ſea of Azof, as far as the Don. They rendered themſelves maſters of the city of Kertſch in the Krimea, made frequent incurſions into that peninſula and into other european countries, formed the baſis of the then riſing caucaſean tribes and founded in Ægypt a famous dynaſty. At the end of the fourteenth century the Zichians ſuffered much by the furious victories of the great Timur, who deſtroyed their habitations and particularly the city Kuban: they recovered, however, from theſe diſaſters, and afterwards aſſerted their liberty with

* For an account of this principality the reader is referred to Tooke's Hiſtory of Ruſſia, vol. i. p. 385 and ſqq.

energy

energy and effect againſt the Ottomans, who, though they captured the cities and fortreſſes of Taman, Temryuk, and Atſchuk, were unable to ſubdue the Tſcherkeſſians. In the middle of the ſixteenth century tzar Ivan II. reduced the Tſcherkeſſians to his dominion, yet only for a ſhort period; the kubanian Tſcherkeſſians, on the other hand, maintained themſelves as well on the Don as on the Kuban. There they formed, in conjunction with the Ruſſians, the ſtate of the Don-kozaks; where they retained poſſeſſion of all the iſlands of the lower Kuban, the whole of its ſouthern banks and the regions contiguous to the Euxine. Theſe ſouthern people, however, were preſently (in the ſeventeenth century) compelled to acknowledge the paramount lordſhip of the krimean khan, although they were governed by beys of their own nation. The tribute which they paid to the khan conſiſted chiefly in beautiful youths and virgins for the ſupply of his harem. At the commencement of the eighteenth century the Tſcherkeſſians revolted againſt this humiliating tribute, and put themſelves under the protection of the Porte, without, however, becoming ſubject or tributary to it. About the middle of this century, twenty-nine tſcherkeſſian ſtems, according to Peyſſonel's account, were under the krimean khan, who could eaſily bring into the field a hundred thouſand men. But only the leaſt part of theſe ſtems were really his ſubjects; the ſouth-eaſtern lived almoſt in an entire independence, or acknowledged only with reſervation the ſove-

reignty of the Krim. At the peace of 1774 ſome other diſtricts of the Tſcherkeſſians were ceded to the khan; but on the ſeizure of the Kuban in the year 1783 the ſtems of this people in ſubjection to the krimean khan fell to the ruſſian empire.

Concerning the preſent ſtate and the population of the ruſſian Tſcherkeſſians but little can be authentically aſcertained, as hitherto no enumeration has been inſtituted in thoſe parts. All the diſtricts and ſtems in the Kuban are properly ruſſian ſubjects, inhabiting the iſlands of the lower Kuban, the whole ſouthern ſhore of that river up to its ſource, and the regions bordering on the Euxine as far as Avchaſia; conſequently by the political geography of the ruſſian empire, the circle of Phanagoria of the province of Taurida and the dwellings of the Kozaks of the Euxine.—The Tſcherkeſſians in both the great and the little Kabardia are reckoned only among the vaſſals of Ruſſia. The ſovereigns of that empire ſtyle themſelves, ſince the conqueſt of the upper Kabarda by Ivan II. lord of the kabardinian countries of the Tſcherkeſſians and mountain-princes. This is not an empty title, for notwithſtanding that this conqueſt was afterwards loſt, yet the princes of the great and little Kabardèy, ſeveral times between the years 1740 and 1750, took the oath of fealty to Ruſſia.

The AVCHASES, who are likewiſe called Abaſes or Abaſges, dwell on the ſouthern ſide of the Kuban and on the eaſtern coaſts of the Euxine.

The

The proper Avchaſia or Abaſa is under the ottoman ſupremacy, having a prince who reſides at Anakopia. The weſtern races of the Avchaſians acknowledge the paramount ſovereignty of the krimean khan; and it is theſe who at preſent belong to the ruſſian Kuban. They moſtly live about the river Laba.

The ZICHIANS or Tſchekians, who are called by the Ruſſians Yaſi, are the principal inhabitants of the iſle of Taman. They formerly paid a ſmall tribute to the krimean khan, in all other reſpects are governed by their own beys. The iſle Atſchuk or Atſchuyef is likewiſe inhabited by Zichians. — Theſe two tribes, which, properly ſpeaking, are only one collateral branch of the Tſcherkeſſians, have belonged to the ruſſian empire, as inhabitants of the Kuban, ſince the year 1783.

The following tribes are as yet only vaſſals to Ruſſia. The KUMYKS: they inhabit the plain bordering on the rivers Sunſha and Terek, and in their territory are the famous hot-baths of Kitzliar. — The TSCHESCHENGIANS or Mikſcheſſians, in the eaſtern part of the great Kabardia, a nation that in time of war can raiſe five thouſand horſemen. — The KISTENZIANS, in the little Kabardia, who are about equal in force to the laſt-mentioned. — The OSSETINZIANS, or Oſſes, probably ſprung from the antient Uzes or Polovtzes, in the middle part of the caucaſean mountains. They conſiſt of ſeveral ſmall ſtems who are either governed by myrzas,

or live under *one* common prince, who *is* a *vaſſal* of the ruſſian empire.

Of the *reſt of* the caucaſean tribes, that are in little or no connection with Ruſſia, the following are the moſt remarkable: the LESGHIANS, who inhabit the province of Leſghiſtan in the eaſtern Caucaſus, between Kakhetty and Dagheſtan. They are divided into twenty-ſeven ſtems, and are totally independent. — The TAVLINTZIANS, in the ſummits of the mountains, conſiſt of ſeveral petty tribes, and acknowledge the protection of Perſia. — The AMBERLINIANS, in the vallies formed by *the* mountains of Ghilan, who often change their patron ſovereign, and are at preſent under the perſian monarch. &c.

Laſtly, the GEORGIANS or Gruſinians demand our notice here, not as Tartars; ſince they have *kept* themſelves from all commixture with that *nation*, but as the moſt numerous and powerful body of the mountaineers of Caucaſus, which is now for the greateſt part ſubject to the ruſſian protecting authority.

The whole country which goes under the denomination of Georgia or Gruſinia, is divided into two conſiderable chriſtian ſtates. One conſiſts of the kingdom of IMMERETIA, and the principalities of Mingrelia and Guriel, and is now governed by a common prince who bears the title of tzar. Each of theſe countries had formerly its own ruler, all acknowledging the ſupremacy of the grand ſultan

till

till tzar Solomon united them under his authority and freed them from the paramount Ottomans. — The ſecond georgian ſtate conſiſts of the principalities of KARDUELIA [Kartalinia] and KAKHETTY, which have long been governed by chriſtian princes, in ſubmiſſion to the perſian empire, but, ſince the ſhock ſuſtained by the throne of the ſophys, have rendered themſelves independent. Each of theſe two provinces formerly compoſed a diſtinct ſtate; but at preſent they are both under the ſole ſovereignty of prince Heraclius of the kakhettian dynaſty. The ſtate of Karduelia and Kakhetty borders northwards on the Kabarda, eaſtwards on Daghеſtan and Schirvan, ſouthwards on the perſian Armenia, and weſtwards on Immeretia. The reſidence is Teflis. Tzar Heraclius, who is celebrated for his bravery and other great qualities, as well as by the important part which he acted during the diſturbances which agitated Perſia after the death of Tamas Kuli-khan, ſubmitted in the year 1783 to the ruſſian empire, thus voluntarily ſacrificing an independence which he ſeemed to have ſecured by his exploits; but the advantages whereof were richly compenſated in the protection he procured by this ſubmiſſion.

SECTION V.

Mandſhures.

We now proceeed to the MANDSHURE ſwarms, compriſing only two nations, the MANDSHURES or MANDSHU, and the TUNGUSES. Both nations are related by deſcent, as appears from their traditions, their language, and their bodily ſtructure. The whole ſwarm together poſſeſſes extenſive countries and deſerts in eaſtern Siberia and in the northern Mongolia; the Mandſhu are even ſtill very powerful; one of their princely families being in hereditary poſſeſſion of the throne of China. Since this people can no longer be conſidered as inhabitants of Ruſſia, without pretending to dive into their antient hiſtory, we will only touch upon thoſe of its tranſactions and events which in ſome degree concern its relations to the ruſſian empire.

Ere the Ruſſians entered Siberia, the Mandſhu were in poſſeſſion of all Daouria or the eaſtern Siberia from the Baikal quite to the Mongolian mountains, together with the regions adjacent to the Amoor and its collateral rivers. They were at that time divided into ſeveral ſtems, of which the DAOURIANS inhabited the parts about the Selenga and the upper Amoor, the DUTSCHARES dwelt between the Argoon and the Schilka, the ATSCHARES about the middle Amoor, and the GHILIAKS at the mouth of the Amoor on the coaſts of the eaſtern ocean. — The

The daourian Mandſhu, not waiting for the arrival of the Ruſſians in their territories, retreated to the Amoor and into the empire of China. At the firſt ruſſian expedition about the middle of the ſeventeenth century, the Daourians and Dutſchares were ſubjects of the chineſe emperor, who, as a native Mandſhu, aided their flight, and afforded them protection. The Ghiliaks and Atſchares ſubſiſted then in a ſtate of independence, and accepted the ruſſian patronage without oppoſition. Their example was followed by conſiderable multitudes of the two other ſtems; but the greater part of them, by orders from the chineſe government, were tranſported from the Amoor, of which the Ruſſians had made themſelves maſters, farther towards China. Afterwards, at a peace concluded at Nertſchinſk, the whole of the Amoor, with all the Mandſhures belonging to Ruſſia, were ceded to China; and at preſent the mountain-ridge Stannovoi Khrebet, which ſtretches from Daouria north-eaſtward between the rivers Lena and Amoor to the eaſtern ocean, forms the boundary betwixt the two empires. In the frontier-mountains themſelves, however, are no Mandſhures, but Tunguſes, who are partly tributary to the Chineſe, partly to Ruſſia, or live in complete independence.

The Mandſhu, particularly the daourian, while they inhabited the modern Ruſſia, were by no means an unciviliſed people. According to their written accounts and traditions, they had a conſti-

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tution compoſed of nomadic and civil parts, and adapted to their ſituation, their mode of life, and their various exigencies. They lived peaceably among themſelves and with their neighbours, ſedulouſly attending to agriculture, graziery, and even to mining. Traces are ſtill ſeen, about the Barguſin and other rivers, of their gardens, orchards, and fields artfully laid out, and watered with artificial water-courſes. The daourian mine-works on the banks of the Argoon, ſtill famous under the name of the nertſchinſkian mines, as well as all Daouria, affqrd numerous proofs of the mineral labours of the antient Daourians.

That the TUNGUSES originally compoſed one people with the Mandſhu, is apparent not only from the reſemblance of features, manners, and cuſtoms, but alſo chiefly from the agreement of their languages. Indeed in the countries of the Mandſhu are ruins and other antiquities, which are not met with among the Tunguſes, but both the one and the other confeſs that they are not the works of their anceſtors. Conſequently, we are to conclude that a nation lived there before theſe people, who were either driven out by them, or voluntarily withdrew; it is not improbable that theſe monuments were the work of the Niudſches, during the government of Kin.

The Tunguſes call themſelves Œvœes, probably from the ſuppoſed founder of their race; or, in the manner of moſt of the ſiberian tribes, from the

the word which in their language ſignifies *men*. They are called Tunguſes only by the Oſtiaks of the Yeniſſey, and the Tartars*. The extenſive deſerts, in which they have now their nomadizing ſeats, reach from weſt to eaſt from the Yeniſſey acroſs the Lena as far as the Amoor and the Eaſtern-ocean. From ſouth to north they keep between about the 53d and 65th degree of north latitude, and accordingly neither touch upon the ſoongarian borders nor the coaſts of the Frozen-ocean. Being a very accommodating people, they have admitted into theſe their ſeats, Oſtiaks, Samoyedes, and particularly Yakutans. The diſtricts we have mentioned lie moſtly in the government of Irkutſk; ſome few races, however, of the Tunguſes are reckoned as belonging to the government of Tobolſk.

The firſt accounts the Ruſſians obtained of theſe people were from the Oſtiaks of the Yeniſſey; and in the year 1607 Kozaks were firſt ſent from Mangaſey againſt the Tunguſes, to force them to ſubmiſſion. At that time many tunguſian ſtems owned the paramount ſupremacy of the Burats, who had ſhortly before been expelled from Mongolia. On occaſion of the ruſſian attacks, the Tunguſes diſplayed more courage than the other Siberiaks,

* This appellative may perhaps be derived from *Tonyons*, the title of their princes; this name has obtained the ſuperiority with the Ruſſians, and of courſe with the other nations of Europe. The Tunguſes are called, by the Mandſhu, Solomi [protectors] or Orontſchon [people with reindeer].

and

and not till the latter half of the laſt century were they brought to that imperfect ſtate of ſubmiſſion in which they are held at preſent. — By the enumeration of the year 1766 they conſiſted of twelve thouſand males; but beſides theſe, diſtinct tunguſian ſtems wander among the ſiberian nations, who together amount to about ſeventeen hundred yourts or families. Though it is one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia, yet, by reaſon of their roaming way of life, but few ſtems of them can be actually regiſtered. — The Tunguſes, who nomadize about the coaſts of the Eaſtern-ocean, are known under the name of LAMUTS. Of theſe, in the aforeſaid year, only about four hundred men were inrolled to the payment of tribute.

SECTION VI.

Nations of uncertain Origin.

BESIDES the ſeveral nations we have named, who can be traced back to ſome certain primitive ſtock, there moreover dwell in the ruſſian empire ſome NATIONS WHOSE ORIGIN IS UTTERLY UNCERTAIN, and who ſeem to ſtand in no relation with the branches that are known. All theſe, from particular reſemblances, and from the geographical ſituation of their homeſteads, may be reduced to two claſſes, one compriſing the SAMOYEDIAN, and the other the EASTERN SIBERIAN NATIONS.

1. The

1. The hiſtory and the origin of the SAMOYEDES is not much more known even among the people themſelves, than by the Ruſſians and the reſt of Europe. Leading a nomadic life in bleak and ſavage deſerts, without the arts of writing and chronology, they endeavour to ſave from oblivion the memory of their tranſactions and heros only by ſongs; which, perhaps with ſome truth for their foundation, are embelliſhed with ſo many fabulous additions, that even this mode of tradition affords us no means of becoming acquainted with their antient ſtate. When the victorious Ruſſians, in the progreſs of their conqueſts, came up to this people, they found them already out of their paternal, probably more ſouthern, ſeats of which they had much earlier been deprived by the Tartars, and nowhere in their peculiar condition; a great part of them having ſeparated, on their flight, from their correlative ſtems. Far from adequately diſcriminating theſe nations and ſtems, the very names of them are either confounded or diſfigured, or arbitrarily invented; and, even ſince their ſubjection, little or nothing has happened that might tend to the elucidation of theſe accidental perplexities. The cold and trackleſs wilds of the Samoyede nations have never yet been trod by the foot of any inquiſitive traveller; the collectors of the tribute and ſurveyors, from whom we might expect ſome ſort of information, have naturally more in view their proper buſineſs and the advantages of traffic, than the collect-

ing of hiſtorical accounts; and out of their territory individuals from theſe tribes are very ſeldom ſeen. — In ſpite of all theſe obſtacles, the ſtriking harmony of languages, as well as the great ſimilarity in mode of life and bodily formation, evince the near relationſhip of the ſtems and nations which we now with reaſon claſs under the denomination of Samoyede.

The preſent home of the PROPER SAMOYEDES are the coaſts of the Frozen-ocean, from about the 65th degree of north latitude, quite up to the ſea-ſhore. Novaya Zemlia indeed is not inhabited by them, but eaſtward acroſs the Yeniſſey extend the coaſts on which they ſwarm up to the 75th degree of latitude. In theſe regions, the coldeſt, rudeſt, and moſt deſolate of all the earth, dwell the Samoyedes, ſolitary indeed and ſcattered, from the White-ſea to the other ſide of the Yeniſſey, and almoſt up to the Lena, therefore both in Europe and in Siberia. They call themſelves Nenetſch, perſons, or Choſovo men. The origin of their uſual appellative is uncertain.

Thoſe on the weſtern ſide of the Ural, or the EUROPEAN SAMOYEDES, were tributary to Ruſſia ſo long ago as the year 1525, conſequently long before the reduction of their ſiberian relatives. The regions here over which they ſtray are about and between the rivers Meſen and Petſchora, therefore in the governments of Archangel and Vologda, where they live independently, in a ſtate of ſeparation from other nations. — The SIBERIAN SAMOYEDES,

MOYEDES, on the eaſtern ſide of the uralian mountains, are in the government of Tobolſk, along the coaſts of the ſtraights of Vaigat, about the exit of the Oby, between the Oby and the Yeniſſey, and in the parts contiguous to the lower Lena. Collectively they are more numerous than the Oſtiaks, but like them only ſingly and diſperſed in the prodigious tracts of country occupied in common by them. Among the nations that apparently ſtand in various degrees of affinity with the Samoyedes, are two kinds of OSTIAKS. Of the origin and import of this name an account has been already given beneath a former head *; where we likewiſe ſaw, that under this denomination three tribes were comprehended, namely: the Oſtiaks of the Oby, of the Narym, and of the Yeniſſey. The firſt of theſe manifeſtly belong to the finniſh hive; not entirely with the like conviction, we arrange the two laſt among the Samoyedes. — The NARYM OSTIAKS, who are alſo called Moraſes, are about the upper parts of the Surgut, in the diſtricts of the Oby quite to the Narym, and about the mouths of the rivers Ket and Tom. — The YENISSEY OSTIAKS, though they reſemble the two other nations of that name in appellation and mode of life, yet ſpeak a language ſo entirely different from that of the Oſtiaks, as well as from all the ſiberian tongues, that they might be rather taken for races of a particular nation, though not the

* See the article FINNS, ante ſect. 2.

ſmalleſt *indications of* their origin has been hitherto diſcovered *. Theſe dwell about the inferior Yeniſſey, near and between the Samoyedes. When the Ruſſians, in the ſeventeenth century, had extended their conqueſts hither, theſe Oſtiaks not only immediately ſubmitted, but alſo aſſiſted the Ruſſians to ſubdue the neighbouring nations. In proportion to the dimenſions of the ground they occupy, they are not numerous.

The following petty tribes, on account of their ſimilarity in features, manner of life, and language, are with great juſtice claſſed with the Samoyedes: the KOIBALS, on the Yeniſſey; the SOYOTES and MUTORIS, both in the ſayane mountains; the TUBINZES, on the left ſhore of the Yeniſſey; the KAMATSCHINTZES or Kaimaſches, round the ſource of the rivers Kana and Mana; the YURALES or Yurakes, between the Oby and the Yeniſſey; the KARAGASSES, in the udinſkoi circle, and a few ſtill more inconſiderable remnants of nations.

2. The nations which we comprehend under the general head of EASTERN-SIBERIAN NATIONS are the Yukaghires, the Kamtſhadales, the Koriaks, the Tſchuktſches, and the inhabitants of the north-eaſtern ſiberian-american Archipelago, the Kuril-

* Among the Tartars of Kraſnoyarſk, Aſanes, or Oſſanes, the Chotovtzes, and Schatka, the Arintzes ſpeak this language, though in different dialects. They are not therefore Tartars, becauſe they have intercourſe with the Tartars, and, though following the ſame mode of life, have another language; probably they are a mingled remainder of the Yeniſſey Oſtiaks.

liens,

lians, and the Aleutans. Of theſe ſeveral people, the Yukaghires have a certain reſemblance with the Yakutes, the Tſchuktſches with the northern-iſlanders, the Kamtſhadales with ſome of the Kurillians, and the Koriaks form as it were the connecting link between the Tſchuktſches and the Kamtſhadales. Yet, after all, the variations of theſe nations are ſtill greater than their points of reſemblance; therefore, till we have more accurate hiſtorical accounts, which are here entirely wanting, and of obtaining which ſcarcely any hope can be entertained, they cannot be reduced to any common origin. For which reaſon we are only able here to rank them according to their geographical ſituation, and not by their ſuppoſed affinity.

The north-eaſternmoſt part of the terra firma of Siberia was known to the Ruſſians in the latter half of the ſeventeenth century: the conqueſt of it, however, proceeded but ſlowly, from the innumerable obſtacles they had to encounter. Till the year 1690 nothing was known of Kamtſhatka, except what was told in vague reports: the poſſeſſion of this country was entered upon in 1696. The Kurilly iſlands were diſcovered in 1710. In the year 1727 the maritime expeditions were begun under the command of captain Behring, which continued till the year 1741, and by which the north-eaſtern coaſts of Siberia, the inland ſea between Siberia and America, and even that continent, were in part newly diſcovered, and partly accurately

explored and aſcertained. Theſe countries and iſlands were afterwards viſited by ruſſian * hunters and merchants, and by degrees made tributary. Tſchuktſchi-noſs, or the promontory of Tſchuktſchi, and in general the region adjacent to the Anadyr, were earlier known than Kamtſhatka, having been conquered in 1738. But, it being extremely difficult to retain the ſavage inhabitants of theſe wild and dreary regions in obedience, they have been abandoned from time to time to their independence. The obſtacles and difficulties ariſing from the great diſtance, the pathleſs regions and the rudeneſs of the inhabitants, have hitherto rendered a more particular knowledge of theſe nations nearly unattainable. All that we know of them conſiſts in ſome broken accounts collected and publiſhed either by paſſing mariners, or by unlettered hunters and merchants. Beſides, but little information is to be expected of the origin and tranſactions of tribes who live without writing, and perhaps even without traditions.

The YUKAGHIRES occupy the northernmoſt parts of the territory of the Yakutes bordering on the Frozen-ocean, from the Yama to the Kolyma. They were known to the ruſſian conquerors as early as the Yakutes; but, owing to their wild and impaſſable deſerts, could not be completely brought to ſubjection till the year 1639. They had never ſeen a horſe, though that ſpecies of ani-

* Promuiſchlenniki.

mals

mals was found among the Yakutes, and therefore they appear to have been for a great length of time confined to their cold, fenny, and mountainous diſtricts. The whole people, at the reviſion before the laſt, paid taxes only for about a thouſand heads; but it was ſo eaſy for them in their deſerts to evade the payment, that their entire population may be computed at a much higher number.

The dreary, rocky, unfruitful mountain-ridges, which form the peninſula of Kamtſhatka, have always, in all probability, had their peculiar inhabitants; namely, the Koriaks in the northern part oppoſite the continent, and the KAMTSHADALES on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula. Theſe latter call themſelves Itelmans, that is, inhabitants. The country has its name from the river Kamtſhatka, which again was ſo called, it ſeems, from ſome brave warrior named Konſata. The origin and the fates and fortunes of the Kamtſhadales are utterly unknown. By their language, mode of life, and bodily formation, they may be taken to be a diſtinct people, related with ſome neighbouring iſlanders. Their number, according to the enumeration of 1760, amounts to about three thouſand males; but it may be admitted to be really three or four times larger.

The KORIAKS probably have their name from the word Kora, which in their language ſignifies a rein-deer. They dwell about the northern part of the penſhinſkoi-gulf and in the north of Kamtſhatka,

near and among the Kamtſhadales, Tunguſes, Lamutes, and Tſchuktſches. The circumſtance that they do not appear in the hiſtory of their ſouthern neighbours, and ſtill more the great likeneſs they bear to many iſlanders of the Eaſtern-ocean, and even with the neareſt Americans beyond the ſtraights, gives room to ſuppoſe that they, and for the ſame reaſons the Tſchuktſches, are the primitive poſſeſſors of theſe coaſts, who either came over from the continent of America, or were divided by the probable infraction of the ſea, and the conſequent ſeparation of the two quarters of the world. In numbers the Koriaks are about equal to the Kamtſhadales.

The TSCHUKTSCHES occupy the north-eaſtern point of Siberia towards the Frozen-ocean and the Eaſtern-ocean, which is called the Tſchuktſchy-cape, and have in all reſpects ſo much ſimilarity with the Koriaks, that one might eaſily be tempted to take the two nations for relational ſtems. They may be computed at four thouſand bows.

The KURILLIANS are the inhabitants of the iſlands, named after them, in the Eaſtern-ocean. They bear not all the ſame appellation, and likewiſe differ much in language and manner of life; ſome verging more upon the Japaneſe, and others on the Kamtſhadales. In the year 1766 all the inhabitants of theſe iſlands tributary to the ruſſian empire were regiſtered at two hundred and ſixty-two heads.

The

The ALEUTANS, laſtly, inhabit the chain of iſlands denominated from them, extending from Kamtſhatka north-eaſtwards to the continent of America. In proportion to the dimenſions of their iſlands they are tolerably numerous, and at preſent are moſtly ſubject to the tribute.

SECTION VII.

Diſperſed Bands of European and Aſiatic Nations.

THE laſt Section of this claſſification compriſes the ſeveral BODIES OF EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC NATIONS DISPERSED IN VARIOUS PARTS OF THE EMPIRE. The number of them all together is indeed very conſiderable; but each diſtinct nation is not ſufficiently numerous for being here allowed a ſeparate place. Beſides, the majority of them are only emigrated colonies from larger nations, who have voluntarily ſettled on a variety of occaſions and in different ways in the ſeveral provinces of the ruſſian empire. We here paſs over at once the colonies before-named, as enough has been ſaid concerning them.

Of all the european nations that fall under this head, none is more numerous than the GERMAN. In the governments of Riga, Reval, and Courland, they form the moſt conſiderable, though not the

moſt numerous part of the inhabitants. The nobility in theſe provinces conſiſt moſtly of the deſcendants of the teutonic knights, who, at the commencement of the thirteenth century, conquered theſe countries for themſelves and the church, and made the natives their ſlaves. Even the burghers and free people, or the greater part of the townſmen, are Germans, who have gradually, ſince the diſcovery of Livonia, reſorted thither and ſettled. Their number is very conſiderable, and though it be greatly exceeded by that of the proper natives, the Lettes and the Eſthonians, yet the german language may be conſidered as predominant in thoſe governments. According to a probable calculation, founded on the laſt enumeration, the Germans reſiding in the government of Riga amount to thirty thouſand, and thoſe in that of Reval to fifteen thouſand; in Courland they are probably ſtill more numerous. Both in Moſco and in St. Peterſburg they live by thouſands; in the latter alone they are known to be upwards of ſeventeen thouſand. Even in the government of that city, as well as in that of Vyborg, they form no inconſiderable part of the nobility and citizens. As coloniſts, properly ſo called, or countrymen, many thouſand german families came in 1763 into the governments of St. Peterſburg, Saratof, Voronetch, and Tchernigof, as ſettlers, the number of whom ſince the year 1783 is much increaſed by new ſettlements in the government of Ekatarinoſlaf, and in the province of Tau-

rida,

rida. All theſe and the multitude of ſuch as live ſeparately about the empire, taken together, may probably far exceed a hundred thouſand.

Of the other european nations, there are only detached colonies, eſpecially in the large towns. In the governments of Vyborg and Reval, and on ſome of the iſlands of the Baltic, a number of the inhabitants are SWEDES, though not to a conſiderable amount. The iſlands Vorms and Rugen in the Baltic are partly inhabited by DANES. Theſe, however, as well as people from the other european nations, are moſt numerous in Moſco and St. Peterſburg, and in ſome of the great towns of the empire. In moſt of the ſea-ports are ENGLISHMEN, who, however, ſeldom fix there, but as ſoon as their affairs will permit, return to their native country.

FRENCH are diſperſed in conſiderable numbers over the whole empire; the plan lately deviſed for eſtabliſhing a colony of emigrants in the ſouthern governments, has not hitherto been put into execution. Beſides the ITALIANS we meet with in the capital towns, there are alſo in the province of Taurida ſome remains of that people, the deſcendants of thoſe who ſettled there during the period that the Genoeſe were in poſſeſſion of the peninſula.

GREEKS are in Little-Ruſſia, at Neſhin, in the government of Tchernigof, in that of Ekatarinoſlaf, and in Taurida, where they form in ſome meaſure reſpectable colonies. Their number in the Krimea was formerly very conſiderable; but in

in the year 1778 the inhabitants of the Krimea, who were of the greek religion, applied by a reſcript ſubſcribed by the metropolitans of Gothia and Keffa to the empreſs, requeſting to be admitted as ſubjects of the ruſſian empire, which was granted by a manifeſto in the year 1779. The empreſs defrayed the expences of their tranſport from the Krim, and aſſigned to them a conſiderable tract of country bordering on the Solonoya and the ſea of Azof: the merchants, however, and the trading part of the colony were ſent to the newly erected towns of Ekatarinoſlaf and Mariupol. After the ruſſians had had taken poſſeſſion of the Krim, the Greeks for the moſt part went thither again. — In the government of Ekatarinoſlaf are alſo ALBANIANS, MOLDAVIANS, VALAKHIANS, and ARNAUTS, though in no great numbers.

The OTTOMAN TURKS, who, either by the fortune of war, or by the capture of particular cities and provinces, are become ſubjects of the ruſſian empire, have for the greater part diſperſed; they no where form what may be properly called colonies, yet they are found together in ſmall numbers at Orenburg, in the former Otchakof-ſteppe, and in other places. — In the diſtricts of Aſtrakhan and Orenburg are found many PERSIANS; alſo on the Kamma there is a colony of Perſians and ARABS. — The ARMENIANS are particularly numerous in the towns of Orenburg, Kitzliar, Moſdok, St. Peterſburg, and Moſco; but eſpecially in the governments

ments of Caucaſus and Ekatarinoſlaf, where they compoſe a colony conſiſting of ſome thouſands. The town Nachitſchevan, on the Don, is almoſt entirely inhabited by them. They were formerly, next to the Tartars, the moſt numerous in the Krim; but a great part of them in the year 1779 withdrew with the krimean Greeks into Ruſſia. — In Aſtrakhan and Kitzliar are likewiſe ſettlements of INDIANS, who partly originate from Hindoſtan, and partly from the province of Multan.

To conclude; there are in Ruſſia very conſiderable colonies of the two wandering nations, who are everywhere at home, and have nowhere any country, namely Jews and Gypſies. The JEWS are in great numbers throughout the poliſh provinces which now belong to the ruſſian empire; and they are ſeen in pretty ſtrong bodies on the borders of the neighbouring governments: whereas in the reſt of Ruſſia they are found very ſparingly, and in moſt parts not at all. Taurida, however, is an exception to this, where they are partly fixed as antient inhabitants. At the time when the Chazares were maſters of the Krimea, even ſome of their ſovereigns, according to their traditions, profeſſed the religion of Moſes. — The GYPSIES are particularly in the provinces of both Great and Little Ruſſia, where they ſtroll about in large companies.

FROM this contracted view, in which ſome *few* other petty tribes are entirely overlooked, it appears that the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire form at leaſt EIGHTY DISTINCT NATIONS, as well in their lineage as in their manners and their language eſſentially different from each other *. — To ſee ſo extraordinary a multitude of nations and tribes united in one body-politic is certainly a curious phænomenon, of which we ſhould look in vain for another example in the hiſtory of the world. This mingled maſs of people, ſo extremely numerous, preſents a ſpectacle which muſt be highly intereſting to every reflecting obſerver. Its phyſical, civil, and moral ſtate forms a grand and inſtructive picture, in which are ſeen all the modifications whereof this ſtate, by the moſt various cauſes and operations, is ſuſceptible: a commentary on the hiſtory of mankind, illuſtrative of the gradual developement of civilization by the moſt lively and ſtriking example. — On the whole ſcale of human nature, from the rude and brutal condition to the ſummit of ſenſible and intellectual refinement, there is ſcarcely a remarkable tranſition which may not be matched from the foregoing liſt. Here are ſeen nations of HUNTERS and FISHERS, roaming about their foreſts, without permanent habitations, defy-

* In this enumeration, the collateral branches of the Ruſſians, Kalmuks, and Tartars, as well as the relative tribes of the Oſtiaks of the Yeniſſey, are not included.

ing

ing all dangers and indifferent to the accommodations of life, who have ſcarcely any notion of property, who feed upon raw fleſh and unprepared fruits, and wrap themſelves in the ſkins of the beaſts with which they contend for their exiſtence, and by which they ſuſtain their lives. — Near to theſe we find PASTORAL nations, obtaining their nouriſhment, their clothing, and even a ſort of affluence ſolely from their flocks and herds; living with them in moveable tents on everlaſting perambulations, and paſſing their days in a patriarchal ſimplicity of manners, generally without the art of writing, and without the knowledge and uſe of money. — Again we behold nations, who devote themſelves to the labours of AGRICULTURE, carrying on their various occupations, one while incomplete and directed to ſingle objects, at another on a general ſcale and with ingenuity and induſtry. We obſerve the progreſs of culture, in regions where the virgin earth, the firſt time for thouſands of years, opens her boſom to the ſtrange hand of the countryman; and, where inſtead of temporary huts of felt, houſes and villages ariſe to our view. — With equal ſurpriſe we ſee villages changed into towns, and houſes into palaces, where PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRY has erected her manufactories, and where diligence collects the products of the diſtant parts of the world for traffic.

As all the gradations of living are found among the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, ſo we ſee alſo examples

examples of all the modifications of CIVIL CONSTITUTION. Among the Tſchuktſches and the inhabitants of the Eaſtern-iſles we ſcarcely find an idea of ſocial connection; among other nations in the eaſt of Siberia and among the Laplanders, we perceive in the FAMILY-GOVERNMENT of fathers and elders, the firſt rude ſketch of monarchy; but far more conſiderable is the number of thoſe who divide themſelves into STEMS and HORDES, which are again parted into races. A pure DEMOCRACY is diſcernible in the generality of the branches of Kozaks; while the Kalmuks and Kirghiſes have a mixed REPUBLICAN MONARCHY. Not leſs numerous are the corruptions of theſe ſeveral forms of government, which all at laſt diſſolve into the elements of UNLIMITED MONARCHY. — Some nations have a FAMILY-NOBILITY hereditary in their offspring; while others have only a PERSONAL-NOBILITY, founded on the reſpectability of age, on the influence of wealth, or on the brilliancy of perſonal talents. — Of all the modifications of civil conſtitution none is perhaps ſo ſingular as the military democracy of the Kozaks, the eſſence and aim of which is war, and even of which we have been witneſſes of a corruption, in its denying the other half of the human race all civil and domeſtic community.

Not leſs edifying and diverſified is the view of the RELIGIOUS IDEAS AND FORMS OF WORSHIP which theſe nations have adopted for the ſervice and the honour of the Supreme Being. We find in the ruſſian

ruſſian empire not only the generality of the known parties and ſects of the CHRISTIAN faith, but the JEWISH, the MOHAMMEDAN, the LAMA, and the SCHAMANE religions have here their numerous votaries. — From the moſt monſtrous POLYTHEISM to the total unacquaintance with any idea of a ſupreme intelligence, there are innumerable turnings in which the human intellect may ſtray, and the religious opinions of the ſavage and half-ſavage tribes of the ruſſian empire preſent us with no inconſiderable a ſupplement to the hiſtory of theſe aberrations.

Great as the difference is between the modes of life, conſtitutions, and religions of the inhabitants of the ruſſian empire, ſo motley and various is alſo the picture of their PHYSICAL CONDITION, their MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DRESSES, DWELLINGS, UTENSILS, and WEAPONS. What a contraſt between the flat, broad, beardleſs phyſiognomy and the yellow figure-painted ſkin of the eaſt-ſiberian nations, and the european form and complexion of the ſeveral genuine ruſſian ſtems! What a diſtance from the earth-holes of the Samoyedes to the palaces of the reſidence, from the needle-work of fiſh-bones and ſinews to the weaving of tapeſtry, from the ſling and the arrow to the fire-arms of the modern art of war in Europe! — If the view of ſuch a great and ſtriking diverſity in all the concerns of mankind, and in all the diſplays of their activity, afford inſtructive and entertaining matter for reflection,

SECTION I.

Population of the Ruſſian Empire.

DISTINGUISHING the term *population* from *populouſneſs*, we underſtand by the former the bare number of the inhabitants of a country; by the latter, on the other hand, the relation it bears to the ſuperficies of the ground on which they dwell. This explanation being premiſed, no doubt can be entertained that the ruſſian empire, which, in regard to its ſuperficial contents, is exceeded by no country in the world, muſt alſo, in regard to the number of its people, be reckoned among the moſt powerful. The knowledge of this important ſubject is founded on the enumerations or reviſions, as they are ſtyled in Ruſſia, which were firſt ſet on foot by Peter the great in the year 1723, and which have ſince been repeated at the diſtance of every twenty years. The occaſion of theſe enumerations was the collection of the head-money, or the perſonal tax which every male belonging to the claſs of either boors or burghers is bound annually to pay, and which has continued to be the main object of theſe reviſions to the preſent day. Agreeably to this end, therefore, they neither extend through all the ranks nor all the tribes of the empire; the nobility, the clergy,

clergy, the whole military and civil eſtabliſhment, the court eſtabliſhment, the ſchools and ſeminaries, the greater part of the nomadic nations — as well as the whole female ſex, are excluded. On the other hand, in the regiſter of the reviſion appear all the males of the claſſes ſubject to the poll-tax, the ſuckling as well as the ſuperannuated old man; and neither the births nor the deaths are brought into the account till the ſucceeding enumeration. At the firſt reviſions were omitted likewiſe the provinces of Livonia and Little-Ruſſia, which at that time paid no head-money; and as the management of that buſineſs was given to commiſſaries who had more in view their private intereſt than the truth of the eſtimate, it is not ſurpriſing if their ſtatements generally proved ſhort of what the real number of the people might be.

At the firſt reviſion in the year 1723 (which, however, as well as ſome of the following, were never entirely finiſhed in one year) the perſons ſubject to the tax were given in at 5,794,928. In this ſtatement are compriſed the boors working in the mines in the year 1735; but all the provinces and ranks which at that time were not ſubjected to the head-money were omitted. At the ſecond reviſion, in 1743, there were found 6,643,335, and at the third 7,363,348; which ſum, if we double it for the female ſex, and join them with the later enumerations in the provinces not ſubject to the poll-tax, a total will ariſe of about twenty millions of perſons which the ruſſian empire may have con-

tained about the year 1763 in the enumerated claſſes *.

A very different and far juſter reſult proceeds from the fourth reviſion, which was made in the year 1783 on better principles and with greater accuracy. The main object, to learn the number of the taxable people, was ſtill the baſis of this cenſus, but it was alſo extended over all the provinces then ſubject to the ruſſian ſceptre †, including the female ſex, and ſeveral ranks and tribes till then omitted; the eſtimates were not, as before, entruſted to particular reviſors, but were made out by the town-magiſtrates, the noblemen, the preſidents and elders of the crown-boors, in which they were greatly aſſiſted by the union of the former large governments and the newly-inſtituted viceroyalty-conſtitution; the whole enumeration was completed in one half year, (from the end of the year 1781 to July 1782,) and only the governments of Kolhyvan, Tobolſk, and Irkutſk, on account of their being ſo vaſt and ſo remote, were left till January 1783; the ſtatements were ordered to be made out according to preſcribed ſchedules of a tabulary form, in which regard was had to ſeveral political

* The ſame amount is given by Schlœtzer for the ſame time, in his book on the innoxiouſneſs of the ſmall-pox in Ruſſia, p. 132; but he ſeems to have included all the claſſes of people, numbered and unnumbered.

† Among which remains hitherto unnumbered, the firſt acquiſition from Poland of the year 1773, containing 1,226,966 inhabitants.

matters;

matters; at the same time they were directed to be made with the utmost accuracy, and the penalties were very severe in cases of concealment or evasion *. By the lists of that revision, there were found to be, in the forty-one viceroyalties of which Russia at that time consisted, of male inhabitants:

Merchants	107,408
Burghers	193,793
Odnodvortzi and free countrymen	773,656
Exempt from taxes	310,830
Crown-boors	4,674,603
Private-boors	6,678,239
Together	12,838,529

The number of females was only known of some governments; if we double the above amount for them, we obtain in the enumerated classes of the said one-and-forty viceroyalties, a total of 25,677,000 persons of both sexes. — The authenticity of these statements can only be liable to one doubt, namely, that the real number of the people may be *greater* than by the enumerations it appears to be: for, as every man marked in the revision lists actually pays his tax, it is not to be conceived that these lists make the population to be larger, though it may easily be supposable that they make it

* The imperial manifesto and decree of the senate concerning the fourth revision, in the St. Petersburgische Journal of the year 1781, tom. iv. p. 392.

ſmaller than in fact it is, becauſe concealment is attended with ſuch a material advantage.

Thus far we are enabled to ground the calculation of the number of the people on actual enumerations; but for the ſtate of the unnumbered claſſes, and for the increaſe of the population, as well by the great acquiſitions ſince the year 1783, as by the very conſiderable ſurplus of the births, and the numerous acceſſions of foreign coloniſts, we have only probable and partly-authenticated data to proceed upon; as the reſult of the fifth reviſion, in 1796, *if it be* publiſhed, is not yet come to hand. In the mean time, the following calculation, made with the greateſt nicety of examination, may well be admitted to ſupply that defect.

By the reviſion of 1783, there were in the ſaid forty-one governments, computing the female ſex as equal to the male, of regiſtered perſons - -	25,677,000
The amount of the Kozaks of the Don and the Euxine, according to the moſt authentic private accounts, at leaſt - - - - - -	220,000
For the unnumbered tribes and claſſes at the time of the fourth reviſion, we cannot, without the higheſt improbability, allow leſs than - - -	1,500,000
Conſequently, the ruſſian empire, in the year 1783, might have inhabitants amounting altogether to -	27,397,000

According

According to the reſults deduced from experiments and obſervations on the fruitfulneſs and mortality in Ruſſia, this maſs muſt of itſelf have increaſed annually more than half a million. If, in order to keep as far as poſſible from all exaggeration, we deduct the half of this ſurplus of births, to allow for the diminution it may have ſuffered by an extraordinary mortality, as by war; there remains for every year an increaſe of 250,000 new citizens, which, excluſively of all aſcending proportion, in twelve years makes a ſum total of 3,000,000

The new acquiſitions ſince the year 1783, or the preſent nine vice-royalties of Taurida, Minſk, Bratzlau, Voſneſenſk, Podolia, Volhynia, Courland, Vilna, and Slonim, contain, according to a legitimated ſtatement already mentioned *, - - 5,755,000

Conſequently, we may admit, by the moſt moderate eſtimate †, the population

* See vol. i. p. 294. note.

† That the reader may be enabled to judge for himſelf of the fairneſs of this ſtatement, we will here bring together ſome particulars, viz.

lation of the ruſſian empire at preſent to be - - - - - 36,152,000
or in a round ſum thirty-ſix millions of perſons.

Of

The land and ſea forces, with the militia, or the military commandos of the ſeveral governments, including wives and children, can ſcarcely be ſet down at a lower number than - - - 800,000

According to the eſtabliſhment of the viceroyalties every government conſiſting of ten circles has about ſix hundred civil-officers, without reckoning the hoſt of chancery-placemen and ſcribes, and beſides the watchmen, money-tellers, couriers, &c. If we reckon the ſaid forty-one viceroyalties on an average at ten circles each (moſt of them have from twelve to fifteen) and the number of all the officers and ſervants at only a thouſand perſons; tripling this ſum for ſuch as are married and their families, it yields - - - 120,000

The cuſtom-houſe officers, ſtrand-ſurveyors, ſtrand and frontier riders, poſtmen, &c. with wives and children, we will only compute at - - - 80,000

The amount of the ruſſian clergy is commonly eſtimated at ſixty-eight thouſand perſons, of whom the generality are married ſecular prieſts. Including their families we may properly give this claſs at 200,000

Theſe few heads therefore, by the loweſt eſtimate, already produce - - - - - 1,200,000

perſons; and yet we have omitted the whole nobility, the court eſtabliſhment, the imperial colleges, the academies, ſchools, and ſeminaries of education, the foreigners, the major part of the inhabitants of Moſco and St. Peterſburg; here are alſo wanting the

Of this prodigious maſs the greater part by far belongs to European Ruſſia. The five governments of Perm, Ufa, Kolhyvan, Tobolſk, and Irkutſk, comprehended under the general name of Siberia, contain all together, according to the reviſion-liſts, only 2,215,000, or, with the unnumbered claſſes and tribes, perhaps above three millions and a half of inhabitants. The population of the europeaн part is therefore about fourteen times greater; and the ruſſian empire, which in regard to its ſuperficial contents moſtly belongs to Aſia, muſt in regard to its population be reckoned as belonging to Europe.

On the ſcale of the population of the european ſtates, Ruſſia holds the ſecond place, having in this

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the wandering or uncivilized tribes, the vagabonds, and fugitives, &c. as well as the priſoners and criminals condemned to the public works, the number of whom would be incredibly large, if it were not at times diminiſhed by manifeſtos of grace. — That our ſtatement is not too high, if we reckon all theſe deſcriptions at 300,000, will be evident from the following compariſon. In the forty-one governments of the ruſſian empire no more than twelve of them have delivered in any near ſtatement of the female ſex or the exempted claſſes; and though even of theſe twelve eſtimates not one is entirely complete, yet the difference amounts to upwards of 1,607,000 perſons, as the ſum of the inhabitants of all the forty-one governments, by the reviſion-liſts, is only 25,677,000, but according to the ſtatiſtic tables it is ſet down at 27,284,000. How much more conſiderable would not this difference be if we had only from all the governments *ſuch* data, and how entirely different would the reſult appear, if it could be made out of *all* the claſſes and with the utmoſt accuracy.

reſpect

reſpect only the ottoman empire above it, which is uſually admitted to have forty-nine millions of inhabitants, whereof eight millions are ſtated to be in Europe, thirty-ſix in Aſia, and five in Africa. Excluding the parts of both theſe countries which lie out of Europe from this compariſon, it will follow that Ruſſia has the largeſt population of all the ſtates of Europe. — The countries which come neareſt to the ruſſian empire in this regard, are the germanic ſtates, which may be admitted at twenty-ſix millions; France, to which we may ſtill, notwithſtanding the havoc brought on by various means ſince the revolution, allow twenty five millions; and the ſtates of Auſtria, which may be taken at about an equal number. Of the neighbouring ſtates whoſe relative intereſts are of importance to Ruſſia, Pruſſia and Sweden are the moſt remarkable. The former, with its lately acquired poſſeſſions in Poland and the circle of Franconia, has about the fourth; the latter the eleventh part of the population of the ruſſian empire.

The relative proportion of the population in the ſeveral governments varies very much. According to the precept that was iſſued concerning the erection of them, each was to contain not more than between three and four hundred thouſand males; but, as by reaſon of a difference in local circumſtances, it was found inconvenient to adhere ſtrictly to that injunction, many governments obtained at their very

very firſt erection, ſome a larger and ſome a ſmaller number of perſons; and this inequality has ſince been conſiderably augmented by the natural increaſe, and by new comers on one hand, and emigrations on the other. The moſt populous government is at preſent that of Moſco, which, including the metropolis, contains upwards of 1,139,000 perſons; the loweſt population is that of the province of Taurida, which is computed to have about 150,000 inhabitants. — Several of theſe governments, in regard to population, may vie with foreign kingdoms; as the government of Moſco, which is on a level with Denmark; or that of Caucaſus, which (though only the thirty-ſeventh in the gradation of the ſeveral governments) is equal with Sardinia.

Although the bare knowledge of the number of people in a ſtate affords very remarkable and fruitful reſults, yet it is properly the proportion of this maſs to the extent of the country inhabited by them, by which any determinate notion of the intenſive power and culture of it can be obtained. The ruſſian empire, which, from its coloſſal maſs of people, is at the head of all the european ſtates, takes, in regard to its *populouſneſs*, but a very ſubordinate place. Without pretending to bring it into compariſon with Sweden, poor as it is in people, which reckons about two hundred and twenty inhabitants to every ſquare geographical mile, the ruſſian empire has (according to the above ſtated proportions of the ſuperficial

ficial contents with the population) only about one hundred and nine on an equal ſpace.

In a ſtate, however, of ſo prodigious a magnitude, and containing ſo many tracts of country entirely uninhabited, or uninhabitable, ſuch a general compariſon as this leads to very unſafe or totally falſe concluſions. The bare diſtinction of the european from the aſiatic Ruſſia yields a very different reſult: the former having a population of four hundred and five, the latter of eleven perſons to a ſquare mile. On purſuing this diſtinction farther, by comparing the governments with each other, the product will be, that of forty-five of them, (the five newly acquired not reckoned,) eight contain below one hundred; nine contain from one hundred to five hundred; ſeventeen from five hundred to a thouſand; ſeven from a thouſand to fifteen hundred; three contain from a thouſand five hundred to two thouſand, and only one above two thouſand inhabitants on a ſquare mile. This laſt honourable precedence is held by the government of Moſco, which (including the metropolis) numbers 2403 perſons on the aforeſaid ſuperficies. To the ſecond claſs belong the governments of Kaluga, Tula, and Tchernigof, and to the third, Riaſan, Kurſk, Kief, Orel, Kharkof, Yaroſlaf, and Novgorod-Sieverſk. The ſixth and pooreſt claſs compriſes, with the countries of the Kozaks, eſpecially the north-european and ſiberian deſerts; and here the

degree

degree of population falls ſo low, that of the governments of Toboliſk and Irkutſk, the former has but ſeven, and the latter only three perſons on every ſquare geographical mile. However, we muſt not forget to remark, that it is exactly in theſe countries that the unregiſtered tribes are the moſt numerous. — Moreover, theſe ſtatements ſhould be conſiderably heightened throughout, to bring them nearer to the truth, as neither all the claſſes of people, nor the increaſe of the population ſince 1783, are accounted for in them.

The moſt populous diſtrict of the ruſſian empire is, therefore, the tract of country between the 49th and 58th degrees of north latitude; farther to the north and to the ſouth, as well as eaſtwards beyond the 65th degree of longitude, this richneſs in people is continually decreaſing. And yet even that happy tract of country, ſmall as it is in extent proportionately with the enormous magnitude of the empire, is not to be compared to the population of other ſtates, though even far behind it in regard to naturally favourable circumſtances. If Ruſſia poſſeſſed only in its beſt and moſt fertile provinces a generally equal population with the governments of Kaluga, Tula, and Tchernigof; in that caſe the european part of it alone would have greatly above a hundred million of inhabitants.

Nothing ſeems at firſt ſight more ſtriking, than this deficiency of people in a country that poſſeſſes an inexhauſtible and partly ſtill unemployed ſtore of all

all the material neceſſaries of life; where the countryman, at leaſt in the inland provinces, may uſe all the treaſures of nature without limitation; and where the public taxes are ſo moderate and ſo uniformly diſtributed. This apparent contradiction may, however, be very eaſily explained by affording ſome attention to the following conſiderations.

The degree of population to which any country can attain depends equally on the natural quality of the ſoil and climate, and on the induſtry of the inhabitants. Where theſe circumſtances with their concomitants exiſt in the higheſt perfection, the population muſt naturally attain to the higheſt degree: but rarely as this is the happy lot of ſmall detached provinces, ſo impoſſible is it to be the caſe in all the parts of a large dominion. The ruſſian empire comprehends within its circuit prodigious tracts of country, which on account of their rude climate are utterly uninhabitable; it contains, even in its beſt climates, diſtricts which, by reaſon of the total failure of wood and water, for ever defeat all attempts that are made to render them habitable; in other provinces the induſtry of the people is ſo little favoured by nature, that the want of proviſions is the cauſe of emigrations. Theſe regions then are not to be accuſed of a defect of people, but may rather be ſaid to be proportionately very well ſtocked, ſince, according to circumſtances, no more people could live there than actually do. — But that even in the fertile provinces the population is but moderate

rate in compariſon with other european ſtates, is to be explained from the following arguments: firſt, from the ſpecies of employment from which the inhabitants draw their ſupport. A country, whoſe induſtry is employed in working up raw materials, can maintain more people than another, where the whole profit ariſes from the induſtry exerted in raiſing the natural products. The inhabitants of the ruſſian empire derive their chief ſubſiſtence only from the latter; and even in this there are variations which have a powerful influence on the population. In the regions where the nomadic nations devote themſelves excluſively to the chace, the fiſhery, and the breeding of cattle, the population can never, in the nature of things, attain to the ſame degree as with the Ruſſians who purſue agriculture. — Again, if we bring into the account the numerous colonies which this better part of the ruſſian empire has produced, and ſtill daily produces for the enormous waſtes of Siberia, and in general for all the poſſeſſions acquired ſince the ſixteenth century, we may juſtly be amazed that the population of the middle of Ruſſia proper does not fall far lower.

Theſe conſiderations, which, were we to proſecute at length, would lead us too far, furniſh us likewiſe with a ſtandard by which we may meaſure the progreſs of population for the future. It will and muſt increaſe in the ſame ratio in which the induſtry and diligence of the nation enlarges and refines. The more agriculture ſpreads among the nomadic

nomadic people of the ſteppes, the more the eſtabliſhments for working-up the native raw products multiply, the more alert the induſtry in the newly-erected towns, and the more quick the inward and outward circulation of the preſent riches of the country, — ſo much the more numerous will alſo the population be. The ſuperfluity of people will at length overflow from the plentiful regions into the deſerts, in order to gain from parſimonious nature, by increaſed exertion, thoſe bounties which, though withheld, are never entirely refuſed to induſtry and perſeverance.

Diſtant as the population of the ruſſian empire at preſent may be from ſo high a pitch, certain it is that it is continually approximating it in an aſcending ratio. This is proved by that political arithmetic which examines the advancement of population by the laws of nature, and compares it with the data which the government of every country preſents for that purpoſe.

It is a known fact, that the fruitfulneſs and the mortality of the inhabitants of all countries obſerve a certain relative rule, which is in proportion to the influences upon it produced by phyſical, moral, and political cauſes. From the inveſtigations that have been made on this ſubject, it is plain that the actual population everywhere, if no unnatural obſtacle intervene, neither declines nor ſtands ſtill, but muſt go on augmenting. The reſults which have been drawn from innumerable concordant obſervations,

yield the following general mean-proportion by which the progreſs of population, taken on the whole, proceeds: that, namely, of thirty-ſix perſons annually one dies, and that to ten deaths on an average, ordinary years ſet off againſt epidemical, twelve or thirteen perſons are born. Wherever the progreſs of population deviates from this rule, either very advantageous or very detrimental circumſtances muſt operate. Hence we ſee how important and inſtructive ſuch inveſtigations, applied to particular countries, may be, as well for the political knowledge of it, as for the adminiſtration itſelf. We learn from them not only the influence of the natural quality of the country on the propagation, longevity, and mortality of the inhabitants; but they not unfrequently detect ſome latent evils of a moral or political nature, the noxious effects whereof might otherwiſe long lie concealed even from the moſt vigilant government.

The ground-work of theſe inveſtigations are the liſts of marriages, births, and deaths, on the accurate and careful conſtruction of which the credibility and the practical utility of the calculations and concluſions entirely depend. In Ruſſia ſuch liſts are indeed annually made out and delivered to the proper offices; but they are ſo defective, and the uſe that is made of them ſo confined, that neither the private inquirer nor the adminiſtration have hitherto been able to derive the leaſt utility from them. The author of this beneficial practice was

the emperor Peter the great, who, ſo long ago as the year 1722, (a time when very few countries had as yet adopted that method,) by an article of the ſupplement to his new eccleſiaſtical regulations, ordained that the clergy ſhould deliver to their archbiereys every four months an account of the number of the births and deaths in their ſeveral pariſhes. This command was, two years afterwards, again enforced and enlarged, accompanied with preſcribed forms of the manner in which theſe tables were to be drawn up. In the year 1726 an order was iſſued directed to the clergy to tranſmit duplicates of theſe liſts to the ſynod and to the college of war, which departments were to make out from them a general table, and lay it before the monarch. — With the reign of Catharine the ſecond a new epocha began, as in many other matters, ſo alſo as to the political arithmetic of Ruſſia. The late M. Buſching, being then preacher at one of the lutheran churches in St. Peterſburg, began about that period to collect, and in the year 1764 to have liſts of the births and deaths of the foreign congregations of that city printed. About the ſame time, at the inſtigation of profeſſor Schlœtzer, then at St. Peterſburg, and the late privy counſellor Taubert, all the congregations of the reſidence were enjoined to prepare liſts of their marriages, births, and deaths, in tables after a ſtated form, and ſend them to the academy of ſciences; like orders were afterwards iſſued to the german governments,

ments, directed to the ſeveral conſiſtories, to deliver their accounts to the magiſtracy of the place. The laſt remarkable ſtep in this buſineſs was effected by the patriotic example of lieutenant-general count Sievers, who in the year 1768, being governor of Novgorod, cauſed yearly liſts to be made out of the betrothings, births, and deaths, in his government, and tranſmitted them to the ſenate; whereupon the then general procureur, prince Vaiſemſkoy, ordered by writ all the governors throughout the empire to procure ſimilar liſts, and ſend them to the ſenate *.

This method then has ſubſiſted in Ruſſia upwards of ſeventy years. The benefit ariſing from it during this long period has been, however, proportionately but very inſignificant, which partly proceeds from the incomplete conſtruction of the tables, and partly from the negligent uſe that appears to be made of them. All the liſts, thoſe of St. Peterſburg excepted, have very material chaſms; in the deaths of the female ſex the age is ſeldom noted; the diſeaſes and caſualties are neither completely inſerted nor ſcientifically claſſified. The direction of theſe liſts is indeed committed to the clergy; but whether they are made out by them everywhere with due preciſion, and whether many particulars, eſpecially in the rubrics of the bills of mortality, may not be unknown even to the prieſts, is liable

* Hermann's Beytrage, vol. ii. p. 1. — Schlœtzer von der unſchadlichkeit der pokken in Ruſsland, und von Ruſslands bevolkerung uberhaupt, p. 65 und 144.

to more than ordinary doubt. — Notwithſtanding all theſe defects, however, the tables have their proportionate uſe if but induſtriouſly employed, and with attention to practical application. The ſenate receives them according to the governments, which undoubtedly is the beſt method for enabling them to be conſolidated, as the reviſion-liſts are likewiſe compoſed by governments and their circles. The ſynod obtains them according to eparchies, but only of the profeſſors of the ruſſian church; they are in like manner communicated to the college of war, which principally pays attention to the male ſex. The academy receives only the liſts of the city of St. Peterſburg, but theſe probably more complete and accurate than they are elſewhere kept; this department is accordingly the only one that has hitherto made an adequate public uſe of them. The public is indebted to this learned ſociety, beſides the forementioned paper of profeſſor Schlœtzer's, for two excellent diſſertations *, from which, particularly the former, we ſhall ſelect the neceſſary directions in our inveſtigations on the ſame ſubject.

The liſts which we may here take for the ground to proceed upon, are indeed only of one ſingle

* Eſſai ſur les tables des mariages, &c. de St. Peterſbourg, depuis 1764—178c, par M. Krafft. Acta acad. Petrop. ann. 1782, pars i. — Mémoire i. depuis 1781—1785. Nova acta, tom. iv. — Mémoire iii. depuis 1786—1790. Nova acta, tom. viii. — Mémoire ſur les naiſſances, mariages et morts dans quelques provinces et villes de la Ruſſie, par M. Hermann, Nova acta, tom. iv.

year

year (1793), but they extend over nine eparchies, which, with the government of Riga, the particular tables whereof are now lying before us, comprehend together fifteen governments, which, in regard to their ſituation, their phyſical properties, and their civilization, are extremely various, and therefore preſent very different, and thereby the more remarkable reſults *. According to theſe data we will inquire into the particular relations of fruitfulneſs and mortality, without inſiſting on the premiſes, the dryneſs of which would be weariſome to the generality of readers, and which may be conſulted by the curious in the ſources to which we refer.

All increment in people depends on the proportion of fertility and mortality, from whence proceeds the ſuperiority of the births to the deaths or the progreſs of population. In order to judge of the FERTILITY of the inhabitants of a country, we ſhould know how many marriages are contracted annually among the whole number of the people there, how many children we may venture to allow

* Namely, the governments of Tula, Moſco, Koſtroma, Vologda, Niſhney-Novgorod, Riaſan, Yaroſlaf, Viatka, Perme, Tambof, Penſa, Saratof, Kazan, Simbirſk, and Riga. Six of theſe governments lie in the northern, the reſt in the middle tract, and they all belong to european Ruſſia. According to the forementioned claſſes of population two of them are to be reckoned to the firſt, as many to the ſecond, ſix to the third, four to the fourth, and one to the laſt.

to every new marriage, and what proportion the births bear to the living. — The firſt queſtion is only to be anſwered indefinitely in general terms, it being well known that in cities and towns fewer people marry than in the country. In the ſaid fifteen governments the proportion of the marriages to the living was on an average as one to ninety-two, that is, among ninety-two perſons one marriage was contracted, or of forty-ſix people one married. This proportion is extremely favourable to population; in Sweden, for example, it is computed that during a period of fourteen years among a hundred and ten, in Denmark among a hundred and fifteen, and in Norway even among a hundred and thirty perſons, only one marriage takes place. In the cities and great towns of the empire naturally it cannot be ſo advantageous, as there the introduction of luxury and the diſproportion of the two ſexes are difficulties in the way of marriage; thus at St. Peterſburg of ſeventy perſons annually one marries.

To one hundred new-contracted marriages, we are to reckon, according to our liſts, upon an average three hundred and ſixty-two children. This is about the mean proportion admitted for the whole country, where it is uſual to reckon four children to a marriage *. This fertility, however, is not very great: in Sweden, for example, a hundred marriages yield four hundred and ten, in the

* Frank's Syſtem der mediziniſchen Polizey, vol. i. p. 396.

pruſſian

pruſſian territories four hundred and ſixty-eight, in Sileſia five hundred and three children. Even in certain diſtricts and towns of the ruſſian empire this proportion is more favourable to population: in St. Peterſburg, for inſtance, to a hundred marriages are computed four hundred and twenty-nine children.

The proportion of the births to the living is in general as one to twenty-ſix, or of twenty-ſix living perſons one is born. In large towns this proportion is admitted as one to thirty, in ſmaller as one to twenty-four, and in the country as one to twenty-two; the mean proportion is, therefore, as one to twenty-ſeven, and it is ſeen how very near the reſult of our liſts comes to it. On the whole this fertility is conſiderable enough, as it is rarely found to be greater in large ſtates. In the pruſſian, for example, upon an average of eleven years, the ſame proportion holds good; whereas in Sileſia and ſome provinces of Holland and France, it is by far more advantageous *. — If we compute for the whole maſs of people throughout the ruſſian empire, that of twenty-ſix living perſons one is born; it follows, that, of the thirty-ſix millions of inhabitants annually about 1,385,000 perſons are born.

The general agreement of the birth-liſts of all countries has farther ſhewn, that of every great number of children more boys are born than girls,

* Suſſmilch's gottl. ordnung, part i. ſect. 116.

in the proportion of a hundred and five to a hundred. Our liſts likewiſe confirm this intereſting obſervation, but they yield a far more ſenſible proportion: according to them a hundred girls are born to a hundred and twenty-two boys. This reſult ſeems to corroborate the hypotheſis of the academician Hermann, that the ſurplus of the new-born boys is the largeſt preciſely in the beſt and moſt fertile provinces of the ruſſian empire; and that, conſequently, climate, good circumſtances, and luxury, muſt have a remarkable influence on the procreation of boys. — If the above proportion be applicable to the whole maſs of people, it will follow, that Ruſſia, in the annual number of its births, has 761,000 boys and only 624,000 girls.

The quantum of MORTALITY ariſes from the proportion of the deaths to the living; and this by our liſts is as one to fifty-eight; a proportion which in all the countries of Europe is hitherto without example, and would juſtify the moſt extraordinary expectations in favour of the progreſs of population, if the credibility of the bills of mortality could be placed out of doubt. As ſo ſmall a mortality, however, militates ſo much againſt common experience, we may reaſonably venture to bring them under ſuſpicion. In the pruſſian ſtates one annually dies out of thirty-two living, in Denmark one out of thirty-ſeven, in Norway one out of forty-eight; is it eaſily conceivable that this laſt uncommonly favourable proportion could be everywhere ſo greatly exceeded

ceeded in an empire of ſuch a prodigious extent as Ruſſia, and that in the greateſt diverſities of ſoil, climate, way of life, and even the national conſtitution of its inhabitants? From theſe and ſeveral other conſiderations it is probable that the bills of mortality are not ſo accurately and fully made out as the liſts of births; in theſe there is ſcarcely the omiſſion of any new-born child, as it is entered in the baptiſmal regiſter: but how many people, and particularly children, are buried in the country without any prieſtly ceremonies, and how great the number of thoſe who die in wars, on ſea-voyages, in hoſpitals, and in priſons *, or loſe their lives by means unknown, or avoid the bills of mortality of their pariſh by emigration. — Notwithſtanding this, the agreement of all the mortality-tables of ſo many years and ſuch a variety of diſtricts is a curious circumſtance; and from what we are able to deduce from the reſult of them in behalf of the foregoing

* That the laſt, notwithſtanding the imperial orders, have ſtill no article allotted to them in the bills of mortality, may be ſeen in ſeveral paſſages of the before-mentioned tract of profeſſor Krafft. Il ſeroit à déſirer (ſays he in the ſecond memoir, Nova acta, tom. iv. p. 205.) pour le bien de l'humanité, que les tables continſſent un regiſtre des morts arrivées dans les hôpitaux et les priſons, et ſurtout un expoſé des genres des maladies; l'ordre impérial en fait une expreſſe mention. And in the third: (Nova acta, tom. viii. p. 255.) La publicité à l'égard des nombres annuels des morts arrivées dans les maiſons des enfans trouvés, dans les hôpitaux et les priſons intéreſſe trop l'humanité pour ne pas déſirer, auſſi l'ordre impérial en fait, je le repète, une expreſſe mention.

obſervations,

obſervations, it appears undeniable that the mortality in Ruſſia, as well as in other northern countries, muſt be proportionately ſmaller than the political arithmetic in general is wont to admit. In confirmation of this aſſertion we may appeal to the bills of mortality of St. Peterſburg, the credibility whereof is atteſted by the complete harmony of their reſults with the laws of nature, and has been competently evinced by the learned and ſagacious inveſtigations of the academician Krafft. From theſe liſts it appears that the proportion of the dead to the living, in three ſucceſſive periods, compriſing the interval from 1764 to 1790, was as one to thirty-five, as one to thirty-ſeven, and in the laſt period, when epidemical diſeaſes operated, as one to twenty-nine. The two firſt proportions are unparalleled for a city ſo large, populous, and luxurious, as it is uſual to admit, in general, for the mortality of the open country only $\frac{1}{35}$, and as it has been ſhewn that in great cities, ex. gr. in London and Rome, it amounts to $\frac{1}{24}$*. — Without therefore, pretending to decide in this matter, we will adhere to the reſult of our liſts, according to which the whole mortality carries off yearly 623,000 perſons.

The proportion of the deaths of males to thoſe of females is as a hundred and five to a hundred; the ruſſian empire, therefore, loſes annually of the former 320,000, and of the latter only 303,000

* Suſſmilch's gottl. ordnung, part i. ſect. 35.

perſons. On comparing this ſtatement with the proportion of the births of the two ſexes, it appears as though in moſt parts of the ruſſian empire not ſo many perſons of the male ſex proportionately die as boys are born, and that conſequently in many provinces there muſt be a conſiderable ſurplus of males to females. This remark has been actually verified in particular governments by enumerations *, and, if it could be proved of the reſt likewiſe, would at the ſame time afford a proof (without making a queſtion of decorum) that Ruſſia is the laſt country in the world that could favour mohammedaniſm. But it is probable, that the inferior

* According to ſtatements which are produced in the "Statiſche ueberſicht des ruſſiſchen reichs," there are in the governments of

	Males.	Females.
St. Peterſburg	315,431	262,386
Vyborg	89,637	87,167
Kharkof	402,434	394,374
Kaluga	393,108	377,739
Tambof	443,660	435,904, &c.

On the other hand, however, there are ſeveral governments in which the female ſex is the moſt numerous.

	Males.	Females.
Olonetz	111,681	115,285
Riga	262,853	264,029
Reval	97,155	99,130
Yaroſlaf	373,296	393,143
oſco (excl. of the capital)	394,374	417,872, &c.

mortality

mortality of the male ſex, at leaſt in ſo *ſtriking* a proportion, is not in the nature of the caſe, but only appears to be ſo in the bills of mortality, as that ſex is principally expoſed to thoſe kinds of death which have a rubric in the liſts.

As the tables on which theſe calculations are grounded expreſs neither the age nor the diſeaſes of the deceaſed, many important reſults cannot be obtained which otherwiſe might be drawn from theſe proportions. To ſupply, however, in ſome ſort this defect, we will at leaſt follow the bills of mortality of St. Peterſburg, the reſults whereof may perhaps be applicable, with due reſtrictions, to the empire at large.

Of a thouſand new-born children in St. Peterſburg about five are ſtill-born; a proportion ſo ſmall as not to be paralleled anywhere. The veracity of the liſts cannot well be called in queſtion, as the fact can be proved by other means; and the proportion of the ſtill-born children of both ſexes exactly tallies with that of other countries: there are here, as well as almoſt everywhere, of a thouſand boys nine ſtill-born, but of the ſame number of girls only five. Theſe liſts moreover ſhew, that among the foreigners ſettled in St. Peterſburg, of a thouſand births twenty-five are ſtill-born, and therefore five times more than among the Ruſſians. — With far better reaſon may this favourable appearance be explained from the robuſt conſtitution of the ruſſian mothers and the frequent uſe

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of the hot baths. Both nature and their manner of life are ſo propitious to the ruſſian-women, that of a thouſand lying-in only ſeven die, whereas of the ſame number of foreigners in St. Peterſburg fifteen loſe their lives in child-bed.

If we admit this proportion for the whole amount of births in the ruſſian empire, (and with what ſhew of reaſon could it be affirmed that it muſt fare worſe with people in the country and in ſmall towns ?) then the advantage is plain that the population receives from the vigour and happy organization of the female ſex. Of the ſum total of one million three hundred and eighty-five thouſand births, according to this proportion, only ſix thouſand nine hundred and twenty are ſtill-born children; but if the proportion were as with the foreigners at St. Peterſburg, then would the number of them amount to thirty-four thouſand ſix hundred; conſequently the country would loſe upwards of twenty-ſeven thouſand more citizens, at their very entrance into the world, than probably its loſs amounts to by the preſent proportion.

At St. Peterſburg of a thouſand children on an average a hundred and eighty-four die in the firſt year of their age. This mortality likewiſe is extremely ſmall for ſo large a city: in Berlin, for inſtance, in this period two hundred and ſeventy-ſix die, in London three hundred and twenty, and even for the open country, the deaths are generally reckoned at not fewer than two hundred and eleven. If this proportion be ſo favourable in the reſidence,

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it muſt be far more advantageous in the provinces, where the mothers ſuckle their children; we ſhall therefore probably not fall into an error, if we apply it in general to the whole population. The reſult therefrom would be, that Ruſſia, of the whole yearly amount of her births, loſes two hundred and fifty-five thouſand in the firſt year of their age.

Of a thouſand children that are one year old, eight hundred and nine attain to their fifteenth year; but a hundred and ninety-one die during that period of life. The loſs to the ſtate amounts in the whole therefore to about two hundred and ſixteen thouſand children; and at the end of the fifteenth year it has ſtill nine hundred and fourteen thouſand youths and girls remaining, who enter on their prime of life with full vigour.

The greater however the hopes which ſo extraordinarily great a vitality may juſtify, ſo much the more unexpected is the lamentable reſult produced by the ſucceeding period of life. From the twentieth to the ſixtieth year there die in St. Peterſburg of a thouſand perſons eight hundred and ſeventeen; of a thouſand perſons at the age of twenty conſequently no more than a hundred and eighty-three can cheriſh the hope of reaching to ſo ſhort a term. Therefore, during this period of an equal number there die two hundred and ſeventy-three more perſons than generally in other countries, and ninety-ſeven more than even in London, which

exceeds

exceeds all great cities in the number of its *deaths. So ſtriking and remarkable a phænomenon as this, makes it incumbent upon us to endeavour to trace out its cauſe.

The ſource of this tremendous mortality cannot poſſibly be in nature, as it ſuddenly appears after an extraordinarily great vitality. If the bodily conſtitution of the people, or the phyſical quality of the country had any influence on it, its effects would be principally ſeen in the tender period of life which is everywhere liable to a greater mortality; but here exactly the reverſe appears among the Ruſſians, as we have made apparent by drawing compariſons with other countries. The ſource of the evil then muſt be non-natural; it muſt be in the manner of living. The bills of mortality, alas! leave no room to doubt it; they teach us, that this great mortality chiefly relates to the male ſex, and that it is principally occaſioned by fevers and conſumptions, that is, by diſeaſes brought on by the intemperate uſe of ſtrong liquors.

It is to brandy then that we muſt lay all the blame of this terrible effect. In order to ſimplify in numbers the loſs ſuſtained by the country in its human-capital through the means of this pernicious liquor, let us admit, that the mortality, from the fifteenth to the twentieth year, obſerves the ſame proportion which holds good in general from the

* Suſſmilch, tom. ii. p. 348.

birth

birth to the fifteenth year; at the end of the twentieth year then the total of the deaths amounts to ſix hundred and twenty-eight thouſand, and the ſtate retains ſtill ſeven hundred and fifty-ſeven thouſand young citizens remaining, which may become uſeful members of ſociety from that period by their induſtry and by the propagation of their ſpecies. Of this noble capital, in the moſt valuable period of life not leſs than ſix hundred and eighteen thouſand individuals periſh, and of the whole ſum of all the births at the concluſion of the ſixtieth year only one hundred and thirty-nine thouſand perſons remain, who from their temperance or greater ſtrength of conſtitution may hope to attain to a more advanced age. If, on the other hand, the mortality during this period obſerved the ſame proportion which it uſually does in other countries, then would the loſs at the end of it amount only to four hundred and twelve thouſand perſons, and conſequently two hundred and ſix thouſand more perſons ſixty years old would be ſtill alive, who at preſent by their intemperance have been prematurely carried off.

After this remark we naturally can expect only a ſmall number of aged people. In St. Peterſburg of a thouſand births no more than three attain the age of ninety; whereas, in the ordinary courſe of nature, nine ought to arrive at that venerable term. If this proportion may be applied to the whole, then, of all the births, at the end of the ninetieth year only

only four thouſand two hundred would be left, of whom however ſeveral might entertain the hope of reaching a very advanced age. — From our liſts it appears that one out of eighty-five deaths had lived more than a hundred years; three out of that number were ſo fortunate as to extend their life to a hundred and twenty years.

The rubric of diſeaſes is entirely omitted in theſe bills of mortality; and even in thoſe of St. Peterſburg it is ſo incomplete and erroneous, that the academical commentary upon it can only produce very unſatisfactory reſults. It is much to be wiſhed that the liſts were improved in this reſpect. An accurate and well-claſſified ſtatement of the diſeaſes of all the departed in the various regions of ſo vaſt an empire would furniſh materials for a medical topography, which, from the great diverſity of the ſoil and climate and the nations themſelves, muſt prove extremely important to the natural hiſtory of mankind; and by the compariſon of the ſeveral data with each other and with the general laws of nature, might point out to government the beſt methods to be adopted for preſerving its people. — As theſe ideas, however, are at preſent only pious wiſhes, we will at leaſt communicate the ſcanty harveſt we have been able to reap from this profitable but hitherto ſo little cultivated a field.

The greateſt mortality of St. Peterſburg is cauſed by the three following claſſes of diſeaſe: fever, pleuriſy, and conſumption. They attack the male ſex more frequently than the female, and together

carry off the half of all that die. As theſe diſeaſes can hardly be aſcribed to local circumſtances, but moſt probably take their riſe from the way of living of the great maſs of people, we may ſuppoſe their fatal effects to be in a like proportion in other parts and in entire provinces. — On the other hand the diſeaſes of children, e. gr. convulſions, teeth, ſmall-pox, meaſles, are in St. Peterſburg (and probably alſo in the greater part of Ruſſia) far leſs fatal than elſewhere. Convulſions, which commit the moſt ravages, carry off the twenty-fourth part of all the births; but in other countries they are far more deſtructive. — Before the introduction of inoculation, the natural ſmall-pox killed $\frac{1}{31}$ of all that were born; ſince that epocha $\frac{1}{38}$. From this remark ariſe two weighty conſequences: One, that this formidable diſeaſe is not ſo malignant in Ruſſia as in other countries, where on an average it carries off $\frac{1}{14}$ of the births *; and, ſecondly, that the beneficial practice of inoculation, even in the reſidence, is by no means general, becauſe in that caſe

* The queſtion whether the ſmall-pox be proportionably more innoxious in Ruſſia than in other countries, has given riſe to two very intereſting writings we ſhall more than once have occaſion to quote: profeſſor Schlœtzer's before-mentioned treatiſe on the innoxiouſneſs of the ſmall-pox in Ruſſia, and paſtor Grot's ſupplement to his ſermons on inoculation, "On the fatal effects of the ſmall-pox in St. Peterſburg, as relative to the queſtion concerning the innoxiouſneſs of that diſorder in Ruſſia." Schlœtzer, who declares for the affirmative, ſupports his argument on the ten monthly liſts of deaths at St. Peterſburg for the year 1764, and or

caſe the mortality muſt have greatly diminiſhed, as by univerſal experience we find that of the inoculated only three die out of a thouſand.

Laſtly,

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on the declaration of ſome ſtudents who belong to the houſes in various parts of Ruſſia. This teſtimony, as well as the aſſertion itſelf, Grot undertakes to refute; and in fact truth ſeems to incline to his ſide. At leaſt among all the nomadic nations of the ruſſian empire, the ſmall-pox, according to the moſt credible evidences, are incomparably more fatal than in the europeqn ſtates. Their prevalence indeed is not continual; but, when they once begin anywhere to rage, their ravages are the more dreadful. They obſerve periods, returning after ten, twenty, or thirty years; but their leſs frequent appearance has no influence to the diminution of their mortality. All that the population ſeems to gain in any of theſe intervals, is perhaps loſt to a double amount by the havoc committed by the contagion at its return. The eaſy acceſs which inoculation found among the ſiberian nations, affords a freſh probable argument in behalf of the great mortality of the ſmall-pox there. Nothing but great and almoſt inevitable danger could have prompted unenlightened nomades in ſuch numerous multitudes to the uſe of a remedy, which on one ſide was ſo ſtrongly recommended to them by the natural inſtinct of ſelf-preſervation; and on the other ſide promiſed a ſafeguard to the lives of their children not to be expected from any other quarter. — The mortality of the ſmall-pox, continues Grot in his diſſertations, to the native Ruſſians, may perhaps be leſs, but perhaps alſo greater. To adopt as general the proportion admitted from the tables of St. Peterſburg, is too hazardous. How eaſily may cauſes unknown to us, ariſing either from the difference of climate, of the atmoſphere, of the weather, of bodily frame, or that are entirely independent on them, give the preponderance to one ſide or the other! — The conſentaneous experiences of whole countries and nations are in favour of the ordinary degree of their mortality, as well as the frequent and ſudden

Laſtly, from the ſeveral proportions we have now adduced of the fertility and mortality, is ſeen the ratio of the progreſs of population, or the ſpace of time requiſite for the maſs of the people to double itſelf. This ratio is apparent both from the proportion of the general fertility and mortality to the whole number of the living, and from the ſurplus of the births to the deaths. On this matter the liſts before us, after what has been premiſed, yield the following reſult:

The ratio of the general fertility is $\frac{1}{36}$; conſequently the number of the annual births out of thirty-ſix millions amounts to - - - - -	1,385,000
The ratio of the general mortality is $\frac{1}{58}$; conſequently the number of the annual deaths out of thirty-ſix millions amounts to - - - - -	623,000
The ſurplus of the births, or the yearly increaſe of the population, is therefore - - - - - -	762,000

converſion of the mild into the malignant ſort, their no leſs frequent and ſudden propagation, the danger which is even connected with the mode of their infection, and is only to be mitigated by inoculation, and the general laws of mortality in regard to each particular diſeaſe. An inferior mortality is an exception; and ſo long as this is not ſhewn by numbers, ſo long ſhall we have only uncertain conjectures in behalf of an appearance which deviates ſo much from the ordinary courſe of nature." Sermons on inoculation of the ſmall-pox, p. 431.

Accord-

Accordingly the proportion of the births to the deaths is as two hundred and twenty-five to a hundred; or of a hundred that are born, forty-four or forty-five die. The population therefore is annually increaſed by about $\frac{1}{49}$, or is doubled within forty-nine years.

This aſtoniſhing increaſe of the population may perhaps excite ſome doubt as to the correctneſs of the liſts, for the credibility whereof indeed we cannot vouch; but however extraordinary ſuch a rapid duplication may appear, yet it is not entirely without example. If ſo acute and honeſt an inquiſitor as Franklin eſtimates the period for this duplication in the united provinces of America at twenty-five years, why ſhould not the ruſſian empire, with the like and greater natural advantages, poſſeſs half as much tendency to the increaſe of its population? Were we even to give all poſſible weight to the arguments that have above been brought againſt the validity of the bills of mortality, and reduce the ſurplus of the births to half a million; ſtill the reſult will far exceed the experiments that have been made in the generality of european countries on the increaſe of population.

If theſe obſervations prove not unwelcome to the philoſophical inquirer; if they afford government any ſuggeſtions on the moſt important of all political concerns: it is then worth while to complete the means for rendering theſe uſeful calculations practicable. — "Well-made liſts of births and

" deaths," ſays the author of the learned tract to which we are indebted for ſeveral of the intereſting ſtatements in this ſection *, " preſent to us the " influence of phyſical and political circumſtances " on the well-being of the people, in plain arith- " metical expreſſion; they are a ſort of political " thermometer to the rulers of ſtates, pointing " out to them the degree, even the loweſt, of the " declenſion of the proſperity of their people; " they are the incorruptible organ, which reduces " the public exigencies to language, and conſe- " quently points out to ſovereigns the ſureſt means " of diffuſing content and happineſs over millions " of mankind. But, great as their utility is when " they bear the ſtamp of truth, ſo dangerous are " they when they deviate from that ſtandard, or " are falſified by impoſture to miſlead the judgment " of well-meaning princes!"

Since the former edition of this work, a reſpectable german periodical publication gives the following table of all the births, deaths, and marriages in 1799, throughout the ruſſian empire in the greek church, as being faithfully extracted from the general returns, received by the ſynod, and containing all the eparchies, except that of Bruzlau; which, from the peculiar difficulties in forming a correct liſt of mortality in that eparchy, could not be inſerted.

* Krafft, Mémoire i. Acta Petropolitana for the year 1782, part i. p. 65.

Names

Names of the eparchies.	Births. Males.	Births. Females.	Deaths. Males.	Deaths. Females.	Marriages. Couples.
Kief	25,252	23,793	16,372	16,164	10,279
Novgorod and the vicariate of Staraya Ruſſa	9,320	8,234	4,474	4,249	4,383
Moſko	27,394	22,235	13,738	12,131	13,151
St. Peterſburg	9,527	8,752	8,460	5,508	4,358
Kazan	23,391	20,286	12,889	11,486	13,263
Aſtrakhan	6,308	5,074	3,041	2,337	3,044
Tobolſk	28,206	26,847	14,444	13,054	12,166
Roſtof	10,854	9,798	5,830	5,413	0,281
Pſcove	7,520	5,898	4,011	3,412	4,100
Riazan	17,732	14,726	5,316	5,148	8,509
Tver	15,569	12,928	5,858	5,703	7,373
New Ruſſia	26,319	24,731	16,785	15,414	14,615
Tſchernigof	33,046	30,603	21,818	20,975	17,162
White Ruſſia	10,094	9,209	7,589	7,281	5,537
Minſk	2,915	2,577	1,705	1,647	1,538
Smolenſk	21,977	20,243	13,261	13,522	9,313
Niſhegorod	20,173	16,664	10,031	9,422	9,554
Bielgorod	46,301	39,364	23,523	22,350	20,333
Suzdal	12,771	10,315	5,380	5,187	7,284
Vologda	11,024	9,506	5,912	5,644	4,928
Kolomna	21,703	17,135	6,628	6,204	9,676
Viatka	23,959	25,219	14,655	13,791	13,407
Archangel	7,104	6,271	4,427	4,236	3,457
Voronetſh	27,154	22,901	10,406	9,198	12,764
Irkutſk	4,830	4,650	3,450	2,828	2,239
Koſtroma	10,112	7,396	4,410	4,253	5,776
Tambof	22,133	16,667	7,401	6,667	11,784
Orel	27,373	11,835	6,445	5,799	6,900
Vicariates.					
Moſdok	1,078	971	1,231	754	608
Feodoſia	797	704	681	532	515
Dmitrof	12,883	13,327	7,933	7,324	6,387
Pereiyaſlavl	12,191	11,791	7,879	7,539	6,329
Sum total	531,015	460,900	275,582	264,807	257,513
Grand total	991,915		540,390		257,513
Overplus of births { Males	255,432				
Females	196,093				
Sum total	451,525				

This uncommon overplus of births, unparalleled n the annals of political œconomy, forms a characteriſtic feature of the ruſſian empire, and is an evident proof of the increaſing proſperity of the inhabitants of its vaſt dominions. If this immenſe increaſe of population ſhould proceed in the ſame progreſſion for ten years, at the expiration of that term the number of ruſſian ſubjects will be increaſed by five millions.

Another ſtriking object is the uncommonly favourable proportion which the males bear to the females, and which ſeems intended by nature as the foundation of the military grandeur of the ruſſian empire. It appears from the above table that upwards of twenty-three boys were born to twenty girls; while, on the other hand, the deceaſe of the male ſex exceeded that of the female but by a trifle; a hundred and four perſons of the former having died to a hundred of the latter.

The moſt important reſult of the above table, is the amount of the preſent population of the ruſſian empire, which may be inferred from it with a tolerable degree of arithmetical rectitude. It is well known that the mortality is in common years throughout all the ruſſian dominions, as one to fifty-eight, by which calculation the number of ruſſian ſubjects of the greek church would amount at preſent, excluſively of the inhabitants of the eparchy of Bruzlaw, to 31,339,620 ſouls. If to this number be added that of the inhabitants of the new

new poſſeſſions in Poland, which in 1795 contained 4,592,544 ſouls; and if all other ruſſian ſubjects of the various chriſtian ſects, and of the jewiſh, laman, and ſchaman profeſſions, who are known to be very numerous, be moderately eſtimated only at five millions; the population of the ruſſian empire amounts in the whole to upwards of *forty millions* of ſouls*.

SECTION II.

Public Inſtitutions for the Preſervation and Increaſe of the Population.

HAVING ſeen how benignly the increaſe of the ſtock of people is provided for by Nature, it is now time to inquire how far the government has been attentive to that important object.

The means which the ſtate may employ to this end are of two kinds: either poſitive, whereby the population is actually, directly, or mediately augmented; or negative, by which depopulation is prevented.

* Profeſſor Storch, in his excellent, "Hiſtorico ſtatiſtical picture of the ruſſian empire at the end of the eighteenth century," rates the population of the ruſſian dominions in the whole at thirty-ſix millions of ſouls. But he was not in poſſeſſion of the exact population-table here given; and, of conſequence, not correctly informed of the enormous increaſe of the vaſt population of the ruſſian empire.

How great ſoever the activity may be with which Nature everywhere operates to the increaſe of mankind, not leſs deſtructive are the impediments to her grand and maternal views. But few of our ſpecies attain to that period of life which Nature has aſſigned, not to individuals, but to the whole human race: one half of mankind wither in their early bloom. — According to the calculations which we have juſt laid before our readers, it is more than probable that the ruſſian empire loſes, of the annual growth of its population above ſix hundred and twenty-eight thouſand of all that are born, before they reach their twentieth year, of whom a very great part fall innocent victims to ignorance, to ſuperſtition, to negligence, and to the moral depravity of their parents and nurſes. Were it poſſible only in ſome degree to ſtop the ſources of this dreadful loſs, and only to reſcue the twentieth part of this ſlaughtered generation, the ſtate would receive a pure gain every year of more than thirty-one thouſand human beings, which would be preciſely as if it were enriched by thirty-one thouſand new citizens.

But, it will be aſked, is it not Nature herſelf who allots to the greater part of the race of men ſo ſhort a term, and deſtroys the half of her own work ere it has reached maturity? — Certainly Nature, for wiſe and good purpoſes, has made the firſt period of human life dependent on the nurſing and care of others, and the whole of its phyſical exiſtence on a thouſand

thouſand accidental circumſtances; but no leſs certain is it, that man is his own deſtroyer, and that the phyſical and moral corruption of large ſocieties begets numberleſs new evils, the origin whereof can never be charged on Nature. If, for example, by well-atteſted obſervations, of a thouſand children nouriſhed by their mothers, only three hundred died; but of juſt the ſame number who are ſuckled by nurſes five hundred are a prey to death: — if the natural ſmall-pox kill the ſeventh child, while of the inoculated only three out of a thouſand loſe their lives: — if London formerly loſt only a tenth of its births by convulſions; but at preſent, ſince it is become larger, more opulent and more luxurious, its loſs is riſen to three tenths: — if in Ruſſia annually two hundred thouſand grown perſons are brought prematurely into the bills of mortality by the immoderate uſe of ſtrong liquors: this ſurely is not the fault of Nature, who neither teaches us to keep nurſes nor to drink brandy, and who, if we follow her ſimple and beneficent dictates, renders even mortal diſtempers innoxious.

Unqueſtionable as it is that the generality of phyſical evils proceed from man himſelf, not leſs ſo is it that he has the eradication or the mitigation of them in his own power. The care of his own preſervation is implanted as an inſtinct in the breaſt of each individual, which only needs ſome underſtanding and conduct in order to reach its end: in civil ſociety the care for the preſervation of all is a duty incumbent

incumbent on the ſtate *, and requires to be ſupported with ſo much the greater energy the more its ſtrength and welfare are dependent on that care. No one will make it a matter of doubt, that a wiſe and vigilant government poſſeſſes great and powerful means to check the mortality of its ſubjects; and of what may be effected in this regard by public inſtitutions, hiſtory affords us inſtructive and ſtriking examples. Famine, peſtilence, leproſy, and ſmall-pox have formerly depopulated whole provinces; but corn-magazines, lazarets, and inoculation-houſes have gradually ſet bounds to their devaſtations; and, if theſe horrible calamities ſtill at times rage in other quarters of the world, yet the citizen of Europe is ſecured from their farther diſſemination.

From the following repreſentation it will appear how much in Ruſſia the government has hitherto done in this important part of public concern. A country in which moſt of the inſtitutions of this kind are of a new creation, and where the people live diſperſed over a monſtrous ſurface, great difficulties naturally preſent themſelves to the proviſions that may be undertaken for preſerving the numbers and the health of the inhabitants. This remark, which perhaps to ſome readers will not appear ſuperfluous, will place us in the true point of view,

* Inſtruction of Catharine II. to the commiſſion for framing a code of laws. cap. xii. ſect. 267.

for

for forming an impartial judgment on the eſtabliſhments and meaſures, which are at preſent the object of our attention *.

Medicine, as a ſcience, was not domeſticated in Ruſſia till the commencement of the eighteenth century. For though before that period foreign phyſicians were individually maintained at the court of the tzars; yet public medical inſtitutions were unknown to the empire. Peter the great firſt called expert phyſicians and ſurgeons, erected hoſpitals and endowed a MEDICAL CHANCERY or faculty, which had the ſuperviſal of the whole ſtate of medicine, committing to it the care of its foundation and enlargement. The favourite phyſician of that emperor was Blumentroſt, a German, born at Moſco, who, afterwards, as preſident of the academy of ſciences, was alſo director of the medical faculty, and as well under that ſovereign as the two following enjoyed the place of archiater. With him Peter the great had another phyſician, Dr. Areſkine, of Scotland, but who was thought, under cover of this poſt, to act miniſterially as agent from the ſcottiſh jacobites. — During the reign of the empreſs Anna, beſides theſe two phyſicians, Krugar and Fiſcher, with the famous Erneſt Stahl, were invited

* Many of theſe particulars are from a manuſcript written by the late baron Aſch, ſenior member of the medical college, and another by Dr. Elliſen; but for the friendly communication of which it would have been almoſt impoſſible to have drawn up any account of theſe matters, as little or nothing has hitherto been publiſhed in Ruſſia on what may be called medical ſtatiſtics.

from

from Berlin to St. Peterſburg, who, however, after a ſhort ſtay, quitted the reſidence and returned to Berlin. — Elizabeth conferred the poſt of archiater on the phyſician Leſtocq ſo celebrated in the hiſtory of her reign; and about the ſame time Ribeiro Sanchez came to Ruſſia, on whoſe recommendation alſo Kaau Boerhaave was invited thither. Panaiota Kondoidi, from the iſland of Corfu, was then preſident of the medical chancery, a man of talents and great ſagacity, who firſt publiſhed the regulation of the college of medicine.

On the death of Kondoidi in the year 1760, the direction of the medicine chancery was committed to three of the moſt eminent phyſicians, whoſe function, however, ſhortly afterwards became extinct, in conſequence of the erection by Catharine II. in 1763 of the IMPERIAL MEDICAL COLLEGE, whoſe foundation forms a new and important epocha in the hiſtory of phyſic in Ruſſia *.

Much has been done ſince the time of Peter the great to advance the knowledge of the *healing* art by the founding of hoſpitals, eſtabliſhing of apothekes, inviting of foreign phyſicians, &c.; but

* Ukaſe of the 12th of November 1763, relating to the founding of the medic. imp. coll. Poiſſonniere and Le Clerc, french phyſicians, were of the number of thoſe invited into Ruſſia, the latter of whom was the author of ſeveral works, as, "Medicus "veri amator, ad artis alumnos, 1764." "Hiſtoire naturelle de "l'homme malade," 2 vols. 8vo. "Hiſtoire de Ruſſie." "Atlas "du commerce national." It was he too who directed the eſtabliſhment of the Pavloſſky hoſpital, as it ſubſiſts at preſent.

the

the mode of proceeding has been defective, and not conducted on any regular plan. The ſuperviſal of the whole ſtate of phyſic was one while committed to the chancery, then to one ſole chief, and it rarely happened that one and the ſame direction continued long enough to produce any laſting benefit, as it was the uniform practice of the ſucceſſor to deſtroy what the former had been doing. It was owing to this ſtate of things that Ruſſia, during a ſpace of more than ſixty years, has been able to produce from the nation but very few ſkilful phyſicians and ſurgeons, and that amongſt ſeveral expert and deſerving foreigners it has been peſtered with ſo many half-learned and ignorant phyſicians; beſides, in the interior and remoter provinces there was ſtill a great want of proper medical inſtitutions.

In order to remedy this defect, and put the whole police-of-health, which forms ſo important and eſſential a branch of the general adminiſtration, under one ſole, powerful, and effective direction, Catharine created the medical imperial college, delivering to it at the ſame time a definite and expreſs inſtruction. "Two things," ſays this memorial, "the college are to make their principal object: "to preſerve the people of the empire by the arts "of medicine, to educate ruſſian doctors, ſurgeons, "operators, and apothecaries, and in the next place "to put the apothekes and their œconomy on a "good footing *." — The plan of the preſent work

* Inſtruction of the college and its members.

being

being too confined to allow of a greater prolixity in regard to the methods it was found neceſſary to adopt for the attainment of theſe views, we can only here give a very general ſketch of the diligence and the preſent ſtate of this department.

To the college-eſtabliſhment belong, beſides the director in chief and the preſidents, (which places are uſually filled by perſons of elevated rank,) four doctors as members, who are accounted of the ſixth claſs, or have the rank of college-counſellors, of whom one has the care of the correſpondence as the learned ſecretary; farther, a chief-ſurgeon, who belongs to the ſeventh, an operator and an apothecary, belonging to the eighth claſs. Beſides, they have ſeveral other ſecretaries, tranſlators, and writers appointed by themſelves. In connection with the college is the œconomical chancery and the reviſion-office, which however have neither ſeat nor voice in the college. — The perſonal ſalaries altogether amount to the yearly ſum of 19,150 rubles.

This college has a department in *Moſco*, whoſe preſident for the time being is city-phyſician, and which coſts annually in ſalaries four thouſand rubles.

The revenue of the college ariſes principally from the three following articles: 1. A per centage on the pay of all civil and military officers, who, in return, (but not their families,) are attended by phyſicians and provided with medic nes gratis. 2. The profit on the ſale of medicines to the public. This part of their income, however, is conſtantly declining by the

the competition of private apothekes. 3. Moreover, the college receives annually an addition of 470,000 rubles, whereof 120,000 are paid out of the imperial treasury *.

The disbursements for the college establishments and its dependencies, but without the governments, physicians, and hospitals, amount annually to 114,760 rubles.

The sphere of this imperial college extends over the whole body of physic, and all medical persons throughout, excepting only the medical establishment of the court. It is its duty to see that all the governments and circles are provided with the requisite physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries according to the imperial precept; it watches over the observance of the duties of every individual under its direction, and has inherently the power to reward and to punish. It has the inspection over the management of the apothekes belonging to the crown, over the hospitals and medical seminaries of education. It examines all physicians, surgeons, and operators before they can be permitted to practise in the empire, from which even academical testimonies and degrees will not exempt, and publishes in the Gazette the names of the persons to whom that permission is granted. It is competent to confer the degree of doctor in medicine. It has

* Ukase of June 2, 1794.—In the years 1794 and 1795 the arrears due to it from the college of war and the admiralty were liquidated by the sum of 530,000 rubles.

to do in general with whatever belongs to the medical ſyſtem, and its correlative inſtitutions. Accordingly it holds a regular correſpondence with all the provinces of the empire, for obtaining information concerning the ſtate of the national health. On learning that ſome infectious diſtemper has anywhere made its appearance, it loſes no time in adopting the proper means for ſtopping its progreſs. Laſtly, it attends to the improvement of the healing art in general; and to this end collects the caſes tranſmitted by the ſeveral phyſicians of the empire, and publiſhes them from time to time in the latin language. — The medical department in Moſco co-operates with it to theſe purpoſes, only with the limitation that it is dependent on the college, and can neither appoint phyſicians nor prohibit them from practiſing.

The ſphere of action of the medical college being ſo important and ſo extenſive, it cannot be expected that we ſhould here give the hiſtory of it from its foundation. We ſhall content ourſelves with producing a few inſtances of the manner in which this learned eſtabliſhment has endeavoured to accompliſh the deſign of its erection.

They have publiſhed a Pharmacopœia Roſſica, which firſt appeared in the year 1778; regulations concerning apothecaries, midwives, with the fees that are to be taken by them as well as by phyſicians and ſurgeons, in 1789, in latin, ruſs, and german. — The college in 1765 employed for the

firſt time the imperial authority of creating doctors, by conferring their diploma on the chevalier Orræus, who had ſtudied in Kœnigſberg, but before he could be promoted was called home. They made it their principal buſineſs to form young phyſicians and ſurgeons from the natives, the want of whom was very ſenſibly felt in the interior provinces, and by encouragements and rewards brought out ſeveral good medical tranſlations as well as original writings. — For ſupplying the army, the navy, and the hoſpitals with chirurgical inſtruments, the college erected three workſhops, in St. Peterſburg, Moſco, and Tobolſk, of which the firſt is the beſt. As the college ſpares no expences for cauſing ruſſian pupils to be inſtructed by the moſt ſkilful foreign artiſts that can be procured, the empire is now in poſſeſſion of a ſufficient number of its own inſtrument-makers, whoſe work is but little inferior to the beſt of what comes from abroad. The ſalaries paid at theſe ſhops amount annually in St. Peterſburg to three thouſand, and at Moſco to ſeventeen hundred rubles; the particular inſpection over the former is committed to an operator, who is a member of the college and a native Ruſſian. — In the year 1795 the college erected its own printing-office with a type-foundery adjoining, which has already publiſhed ſeveral works, the typographical neatneſs whereof does honour to the overſeer. At the printing-office a very expert engraver is alſo maintained. — Of the other concerns of the college,

and the advancement of the art of phyſic in Ruſſia, mention will occaſionally be made as we proceed.

Among the principal inſtitutions depending on the medical college is the town-phyſicate, in the capital, the reſidence, and the chief towns, whoſe peculiar office it is to viſit monthly the private apothekes. — The crown-apothekes are managed entirely on the account of the crown. The imperial chief-apothekes at Peterſburg and Moſco provide all the reſt with materials, and deliver the neceſſary medicines to all the public inſtitutions, the military hoſpitals, &c. All officers, civil and military, receive for their own perſons, free of expence, what they want from the crown-apothekes, in conſideration of the fore-mentioned deduction from their pay; the reſt of the public pay according to the rates preſcribed. For a long time the crown-apothekes were the only ones in being; but during the reign of Catharine II. the number of private apothekes in the reſidence and ſome of the government-towns have ſo much increaſed, that the former have but few cuſtomers from the public. All, even foreign medicines, are not allowed to be ſent out from any of the apothekes otherwiſe than ſealed, and with a label written after a preſcribed form. — St. Peterſburg has at preſent three chief and four collateral apothekes of the crown, with ten private apothekes. The yearly ſalaries at the former amount to 6750 rubles. The apothecary-garden of the medical college has adjoining to it a botanical

garden, and contains alſo the chemical laboratory for the preparation of the ſeveral medicines in the groſs. Both eſtabliſhments coſt annually ſeven thouſand rubles.

From this brief account of the medical college and its operation, we will proceed to deſcribe the ſanity-inſtitutions connected with it, and which may be properly divided into two claſſes, the civil and the military.

Ever ſince the time of Peter the great there have been hoſpitals for the army, but medical eſtabliſhments for the citizens in towns and the country people were not thought of. The prodigious compaſs of ſuch an undertaking, in a country of ſuch an extent, with the difficulties and expence that muſt neceſſarily attend it, ariſing from the great diſtance of the towns, the want of phyſicians, and even the manners and prejudices of the people, ſeemed even to render the propoſal impracticable. It was reſerved for the reign of Catharine II. in this matter too to ſet an example which will never be forgotten in the annals of ruſſian hiſtory. In the year 1763, when the inſtruction for the medical college was laid before her to ſign, ſhe wrote with her own hand the following words to the ſeventh paragraph: "The "college muſt likewiſe not forget to draw up plans "in what manner hoſpitals are to be ſet up in the "provinces, and to make repreſentations to us on "the ſubject." Shortly after ſhe iſſued the order for improving the liſts of births and deaths, and to tranſmit them to the ſenate and to the academy of

ſciences. From ſeveral paſſages in the inſtruction to the commiſſion for framing a code of laws, it appears that a concern for the public health inceſſantly occupied her active mind. In the year 1775 appeared the ordinance for new-modelling the governments; and, what till then had been thought ſcarcely poſſible, or could only have been conſidered as a ſpeculation which might perhaps be realized at ſome very diſtant period, Ruſſia received a national diſpenſary, extending to all the parts of this great empire, and over every claſs of its inhabitants, not excepting the moſt indigent and helpleſs.

By this ordinance * every government, in each of its circles, muſt have a phyſician and ſurgeon for the town and the circle or diſtrict, two aſſiſtant ſurgeons, and two pupils. According to the eſtabliſhment of the government of Tver, which is annexed to the ordinance, the doctor is to have three hundred, the ſurgeon a hundred and forty, the aſſiſtant ſixty, and the pupil thirty rubles, as their pay, which for all the eleven circles of that government makes ſix thouſand eight hundred and twenty rubles. The pay, however, is not alike in all the governments, and particularly in the remoter ones it is much higher. Theſe medical perſons are moreover allowed to accept of fees from the private patients to whom they are called.

The difficulty in introducing the new medical conſtitution was how to obtain a ſufficient number of

* Ordinance relating to the governments, chap. iii. ſect. 70.

expert

expert phyſicians and ſurgeons; but even this deficiency was remedied by Catharine's bounty. Many of thoſe who had aſſembled in the great towns of the empire, now diſtributed themſelves about the provinces, where, with the advantage of a ſettled pay, they could lay their account in receiving a conſiderable income from their private practice, and live proportionately much cheaper; in order to complete their number, Dr. Zimmermann, of Hanover, had a commiſſion to engage by way of contract phyſicians of Germany of well-founded reputation and practical experience. A number of uſeful and able foreigners accepted of this invitation, and ſettled, for the moſt part on very advantageous terms, in the ruſſian ſtates. The generality of them, beſides the expences of their journey, had an appointment of eight hundred rubles per ann. and the place of their abode was left to their own option; at the ſame time they were all diſpenſed from the neceſſity of ſubmitting to the examination of the medical college, which otherwiſe every phyſician muſt undergo previous to his ſettling in Ruſſia.—To this time, however, there are not ſo many phyſicians as are requiſite for all the governments; but their number is increaſing every year, and in the mean time the preſent ones ſupply circles which are not yet occupied. The defect of ſurgeons is entirely removed in moſt of the governments; the medical college have, as far as has been poſſible, taken care in all places to provide ſkilful midwives.

In each government there is likewiſe a college of general proviſion, which, beſides ſeveral other duties, is entruſted with the erection and inſpection of the hoſpitals and infirmaries of the town *. Theſe are inſtituted for a determinate number of patients (about twenty or thirty) and may not admit any more. They are intended for the poor and neceſſitous, who are cured and attended free of all expence; but whenever there are vacancies, other patients and gentlemen's ſervants are taken in; theſe are allowed ſeparate beds, but pay a very moderate ſum for their cure. — Beſides theſe infirmaries the college of general proviſion maintains particular houſes for incurable patients who have no ſupport, and receptacles for lunatics. The deſign of the former is that the unhappy objects, for whom they are deſtined, may not deprive ſuch of the poor as are afflicted with curable diſeaſes of a place in the hoſpitals, and yet not themſelves be entirely without relief. The college of general proviſion is bound to provide them lodging, board, nurſes, and attendance, that at leaſt they may have ſome mitigation of their ſufferings. In the houſes for lunatics poor patients of this deſcription have free admittance: but ſuch as have the means muſt pay for their maintenance and attendance an adequate ſum.

For the erection and regulation of theſe and other inſtitutions for the relief of ſuffering humanity, with-

* Ordinance concerning the governments, chap. xxv. ſect. 380. 386. 388, 389. 394.

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in the province of the college of general proviſion, each of them receives at its opening, from the imperial coffers, the ſum of fifteen thouſand rubles, which in moſt of the governments is conſiderably augmented by the charitable contributions of the public. The ſaid college was alſo empowered to eſtabliſh apothekes, and to employ the profits ariſing from them to the benefit of the aforementioned inſtitutions; but on condition that they ſhould be ſupplied gratis with all neceſſary medicines.

In the capital, in the reſidence, and in the generality of populous towns, theſe inſtitutions are now not only upon a much larger ſcale than the general precept at firſt promiſed; but they are multiplied in various ways by the co-operation of the community at large. That we may give at leaſt one example of the greater inſtitutions of this kind we will here inſert a brief deſcription of the town-hoſpital of St. Peterſburg*, which was founded in the year 1784. — It is built in one of the ſkirts of the city by the ſide of the beautiful and broad Fontanka-canal, and conſiſts of a large, brick, inſulated building of handſome but ſimple architecture. The ground floor is devoted to the œconomical purpoſes of the inſtitution, and the upper ſtories are occupied by the patients. The rooms are lofty and ſpacious; and inſtead of ventilators, ſome of the window-ſhutters are pannelled with wire-work. In winter the

* Georgi, beſchreibung von St. Peterſburg, chap. i. p. 241.

warmth

warmth of the rooms muſt never be greater than ten to twelve degrees of Reaumur.

This houſe, the internal arrangement whereof is modelled after the hoſpital of Vienna in its beſt properties, receives all neceſſitous patients, venereal excepted, and attends their cure without fee or reward; handicraftſmen and gentlemen's ſervants pay four rubles per month. All patients on admiſſion are immediately bathed and have their heads ſhaven; this done, they receive the hoſpital clothing and ſeverally a bed, having curtains round, but no teſter. The two ſexes are kept entirely apart. The number of beds amounts uſually to three hundred, but in caſes of emergency is increaſed to four hundred. In the year 1790, ſix contiguous buildings of timber on brick foundations were erected behind the main edifice, by the college of general proviſion, and furniſhed with two hundred and fifty beds. Here the patients in ſummer enjoy the free air; and, during the interval thus procured, the principal building is thoroughly cleanſed, and the atmoſphere changed by currents of air. — Beſides its projector and chief viſitor the counſellor of ſtate von Kelchen, this inſtitution has a ſtaff-ſurgeon and five other ſurgeons; it has likewiſe a naturaliſt belonging to it appointed for the purpoſe of trying the effects of electricity on the patients.

This ſalutary inſtitution, which does as much good as can be expected from it in the preſent circumſtances, has however experienced the fate of

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all inſtitutions of this nature; namely, patients are often brought to it ſo late that they can ſcarcely be lifted out of the bath and put to bed, which is in a great meaſure owing to the averſion entertained by the common people to public hoſpitals. In the four years from 1786 to 1789, it had altogether taken in 9427 patients, and the number is found annually to increaſe. Of theſe 7417 were ſent out cured, 1773 died, and 237 remained in it at the concluſion of the latter year.

In the mad-houſe, which with its ſmall end abuts upon the back front of the main ſtructure, is upon the ſame footing and under the ſame direction, are forty-four rooms in two ranges, the one for male and the other for female lunatics. A broad paſſage divides them; the door of each chamber is faſtened with a ſpring latch, which the keeper can open from without. The raving are not confined with chains but with leather thongs, while the quiet are ſuffered to walk freely in the paſſage or in the court. This inſtitution has alſo in common with the foregoing a garden for recreation. The whole eſtabliſhment, treatment, method of cure, and diet, are gentle and well-conducted, as plainly appears from their effects. In the three years from 1787 to 1789 altogether were there 229 of theſe miſerable beings, of whom 161 were ſent out reſtored, 11 diſmiſſed into the poor-houſe as incurable, 47 died, and 10 remained behind.

The city-hoſpital of St. Peterſburg for poor and incurable patients was opened in 1781. The indi-

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gence which qualifies for admiſſion to it is diſtinguiſhed into degrees which form two claſſes, one whereof compriſes the completely impotent, who have a claim to the full benefit of the houſe; to the ſecond claſs belong thoſe who are capable of doing ſome kind of work. Theſe latter are employed in any adequate occupation about the houſe. According to the eſtabliſhment the expenditure of the hoſpital amounts annually to 15,417 rubles. — The city-hoſpital at Moſco, which was endowed in 1775, admitted at that time a hundred and fifty patients, and is completely on the ſame footing with that of St. Peterſburg. A mad-houſe is likewiſe connected with it.

Now, though the deſcription of theſe inſtitutions would be ſuitable only to a few towns in the empire, it is nevertheleſs certain that ſeveral on a ſmaller ſcale are proportionably upon as good a footing and as well conducted; and that the benefit accruing from Catharine's philanthropic regulations for the preſervation of her people, and for the alleviation of poverty and affliction among them, acquires for that great princeſs one immortal merit more. Where the end is ſo generous and humane, and where the means are ſo well ſelected, the effects muſt correſpond with the deſign; and who will pretend that both of them are not here in concurrence?

Beſides the claſſes of public hoſpitals already named, which, by the regulations for conſtituting the governments, muſt be in every one of them, there are in many other inſtitutions of a ſimilar nature,

ture, partly endowed by the crown, and partly by rich and humane individuals. Among them the excellent hoſpital founded at Moſco in the year 1763 by the grand-duke and heir apparent Paul Petrovitch, deſerves particular mention, in which, at his expence, fifty perſons are always maintained at a time, cured, and attended gratis. The philanthropic Mr. Howard, who viſited this hoſpital himſelf, ſays that it would be difficult to find a better ſituation in the vicinity of the city for this inſtitution, having a large airy ſpot before it. The building conſiſts of only one ſtory, and ſtands two or three ſteps higher than the garden. The rooms are lofty, and each of them has an opening in the roof; the upper part of the window was likewiſe open, a circumſtance, he adds, which he never obſerved in any other hoſpital in Ruſſia. All the apartments are cleanly and kept in good order; the beds are of blue linen and ſufficiently large, being ſix feet two inches long and two feet ten inches broad; ſufficient ſpace is left between for making them. He tells us that he taſted the bread and the beer, and found them both very good; and adds, on the whole, I muſt confeſs that this little hoſpital would do honour to any country. When I viſited it there were in it nineteen men and ſeven women, beſides about an equal number of venereal patients, who were kept in rooms quite ſeparate; the kitchen and offices are commendably apart from the main building *.

* Obſervations made on his laſt journey, 4to. 1794. p. 37.

To

To the medical-ſurgical ſchool in St. Peterſburg a ſmall clinical hoſpital is added, which, beſides its peculiar deſtination, to furniſh young ſurgeons with an opportunity for practical improvement, is alſo beneficial to upwards of a hundred poor patients annually. — In the ſame city is likewiſe a lazaret for venereal patients, founded by the crown in 1783. It has ſixty beds, whereof thirty are for men, and the ſame number for women. Thoſe that are admitted may keep themſelves in perfect incognito, but may not leave the hoſpital before they are completely recovered. — We paſs over a multitude of other inſtitutions of a like nature in Moſco and other great towns of the empire, which have principally ariſen from the bounty of well-diſpoſed perſons in private life. Certain it is that few other countries afford ſo many and ſuch ſtriking proofs of the liberality and compaſſion of the public at large in charitable inſtitutions.

In the ſecond claſs we muſt place the MILITARY-HOSPITALS. They chiefly date their origin from the time of Peter the great, or the creation of the regular army and the fleet.

For the land-forces, beſides the two general land-hoſpitals in St. Peterſburg and Moſco, there are fourteen large field-hoſpitals at Aſtrakhan, Bogoyavlenſk, Kherſon, Kriukof, Riga, Reval, Elizabethgorod, Orenburg, Vyborg, Frederikſham, Kazan, Lubenau, Smolenſk, and in Caucaſus, without reckoning the ſeveral battalion-lazarets, which are every-

everywhere in great numbers. Each diviſion has moreover its own phyſician, and belonging to the whole army are appointed three general-ſtaff-medici, and above five-and-twenty doctors, as they are called. — All the field-hoſpitals receive the ſums aſſigned to their ſupport from the war-commiſſariate.

The general hoſpital for land troops in St. Peterſburg was inſtituted by Peter the great; it ſtands in one of the out-quarters on the bank of the Neva, and has now commonly a thouſand beds; but in time of war, and when recruits are raiſing, the number is twice or three times as great. It admits, beſides the guards and the artillery, who have their own medical eſtabliſhments, all the patients of the army. The medical perſons belonging to it are a phyſician, a chief ſurgeon, an operator, five ſurgeons, and twenty aſſiſtant ſurgeons, fifty pupils, and an apothecary, to which may be added ſeveral aſſiſtant-phyſicians and voluntary ſurgeons without ſtipends; which laſt, by way of recompence, if they are found expert in their examination are immediately appointed ſurgeons by the medical college. The whole expences, excluſive of the maintenance of the patients and medicines, amount annually to 9620 rubles. — The general hoſpital in Moſco, on the bank of the Yaſua, conſiſts of twenty-three wards, has nearly the ſame eſtabliſhment, but the ſalaries are ſomewhat ſmaller.

The eleven ſea-hoſpitals at preſent ſubſiſting are at St. Peterſburg, Cronſtadt, Oranienbaum, Riga, Archangel,

Archangel, Kazan, Taganrok, Bogoyavlenſk, Kherſon, Reval, and Sevaſtopol. They receive their pay from the two admiralties of the Baltic and the Euxine. — The hoſpital for marines in St. Peterſburg is on rather a ſmaller ſcale than the land hoſpital of that place, but is equal to it in its eſtabliſhment* In the war-years 1788 and 1789 it had 7900 to 8800 patients. The ſtipends and other diſburſements, not including the maintenance of the patients or medicines, amount yearly to 6870 rubles. — As the ſea-hoſpital at Cronſtadt during the laſt ſwediſh war was obliged to admit annually from ſixteen thouſand eight hundred to twenty-five thouſand patients, therefore about that time a new marine hoſpital was conſtituted at Oranienbaum, and a part of the imperial palace there was granted and fitted up for that purpoſe †.

A third

* The following are the ſtated ſalaries in the two hoſpitals at St. Peterſburg.

	Land Hoſpital.	Sea Hoſpital.
The doctor receives per annum	1000 rubles	800 rubles
Staff-ſurgeon	600	450
Operator	320	320
Surgeon	200	200
Under-ſurgeon	120	120
Pupil in ſurgery	80	30 to 80
Apothecary	180	180
Pupil in Pharmacy	80	80

† Having once appealed to the favourable teſtimony of the philanthropic Mr. John Howard, impartiality requires that we ſhould

A third claſs of public medical inſtitutions conſiſts of thoſe which cannot properly be inſerted under the

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ſhould not attempt to conceal his leſs flattering judgment or his cenſure. His account of the land and ſea-hoſpitals on the whole is favourable enough; but in the eſtabliſhment of the marine hoſpital at Cronſtadt he finds much to blame. And ſtill more ſevere is his judgment on the field-hoſpitals in the interior of the empire. It appears, however, after the moſt careful inquiries of upright and ſkilful army phyſicians, that our worthy countryman, being totally unacquainted with the form of government, the manners and the language of the ruſſian nation, and beguiled by his enthuſiaſtic humanity, was at times prompted to draw haſty concluſions. The harſheſt cenſures which Mr. Howard paſſes on the ruſſian field-hoſpitals relate principally to the following particulars; 1. Defect of cleanlineſs. This indeed is not to be vindicated; yet the ideas of cleanlineſs in an Engliſhman and a Ruſſian are ſo very different, that things which might appear extremely ſtriking to Mr. Howard, with the latter would excite no ſenſation whatever. Mr. Howard, however, praiſes the contrary on many occaſions. 2. Confined air. To live in rooms cloſe ſhut up, as Mr. Howard himſelf remarks, is the cuſtom of the country. Several hoſpitals are provided with ventilators, but the patients themſelves requeſt that no uſe may be made of them. 3. Bad nouriſhment. Here we ſhould have regard to cuſtom. When Mr. Howard finds the quas ſour, and finds fault with it for being ſo, he ſhews himſelf utterly unacquainted with this beverage, as well as with the ſbitin. The quas ſhould be ſour; and this wholeſome antiſcorbutic national drink is only then ſpoilt or badly prepared when it has no acid. That Mr. Howard ſhould find the nutritious, but coarſe and black bread, bad, is very conceivable to an Engliſhman, who is only accuſtomed to white bread; but the Ruſſian finds himſelf very healthy with it, and deſires no better. 4. Want of good

the former heads, and the ſubſiſtence whereof is for the moſt part entirely independent on the foregoing eſtabliſhments. To theſe principally belong the houſes for lying-in women, foundling hoſpitals, and thoſe for the ſmall-pox, as likewiſe the peſt houſes. A particular account of all theſe will certainly not be required in a work of this nature; but it would be an unpardonable omiſſion to paſs them over in total ſilence. Some ſpecimens of the moſt remarkable of each kind will ſufficiently anſwer our purpoſe, by enabling the reader to form a judgment of them all.

Even ſhould the important queſtion: Whether FOUNDLING-HOSPITALS deſtroy or preſerve more human lives? be not at preſent generally determined, but found extremely problematical from more recent obſervations and enumerations; yet it ſeems to be agreed on, that the great inſtitutes of this kind in the two chief cities of the ruſſian empire have doubtleſs hitherto been highly beneficial to it. The diſcoveries which gave occaſion to the erection of that in Moſco, leave no doubt, that of all the children hitherto brought up in it, not the hundredth

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nurſing, and particularly of female attendance. The matter of this reproach would certainly not be juſtifiable, eſpecially if it were true what Mr. Howard affirms of the hoſpital at Kherſon, that the nurſes who wait on the patients are people who have been turned out of the regiments on account of their ſtupidity and drunkenneſs.

part

part would have been alive but for that inſtitution; and that conſequently, even in times of the greateſt mortality, it preſerves to the ſtate a very conſiderable number of young citizens. But how much more profitable it muſt be when we conſider it on the moral ſide, and think of the ſecret crimes that this inſtitute has prevented, which ſince the foundation of it have been almoſt entirely unknown. The foundling-hoſpitals in Ruſſia preſerve not merely human beings to the ſtate; they deliver to it citizens, free, induſtrious burghers, endowed with uſeful knowledge and abilities. For theſe and many other reaſons, there can no longer be any queſtion concerning their abſolute utility: the only object of inquiry therefore is, whether or not they have produced proportionately as many good effects, as might reaſonably be expected from the extraordinary means with which the empreſs Catharine, and the unexampled co-operation of a large and wealthy public, have ſupplied them.

In order to put the reader in a condition to anſwer this queſtion himſelf, we ſhould be glad, if we had room, to lay before him a full account of this inſtitute, the principal object of it being more the cultivation than the mere preſervation of the citizen *; but at preſent we muſt confine ourſelves ſolely to the latter

* That this was really the main deſign in the foundation of theſe inſtitutes is manifeſt from their very denomination. For, in public papers and records, they are never called foundling-hoſpitals, but always education-houſes.

part of this great and comprehenſive plan, namely, the preſervation of the firſt phyſical exiſtence, till the age when education properly begins.

The education-houſe at Moſco was founded in the year 1763, and ſtands on the bank of the Moſkva, in one of the beſt quarters of that capital. The many and ſpacious buildings of which it conſiſts, and the foundation whereof coſt nearly as much as the ſuperſtructure itſelf, are, as well in regard to magnitude as to magnificence, unequalled in Europe for a ſimilar deſtination. The whole forming a perfect quadrangle of five ſtories, the baſement is devoted to the purpoſes of œconomy, the next three floors are inhabited by the children, and the uppermoſt contains the wards for the ſick. In the middle of this quadrangle ſtands the magazine. The porter lives in a lodge at the entrance of one of the courts before the ſaid quadrangle, where likewiſe the baptiſtery is built, and where the children muſt be delivered who are brought after the gates are ſhut, which is always done at nine o'clock in the evening. Over againſt the porter's-lodge are the lying-in apartments or accoucheur-hoſpital, very commodiouſly fitted up. In what is called the corps-de-logis, but which is not yet entirely finiſhed, ſtanding in the foremen-tioned court and connected with the ſquare, is the church, one of the handſomeſt in Moſco. — Beſides the numerous buildings belonging to the education-houſe within its walls which are about four verſts

in compaſs, it has without the city an excellent farm, on which are kept upwards of eighty cows of the breed of Holland and Kholmogor, the milk of which is entirely uſed for the firſt nouriſhment of the children *.

Of the direction and the officers belonging to this grand inſtitute, we ſhall mention only thoſe who are entruſted with the care of health. Theſe are: a doctor, three ſurgeons, an aſſiſtant-ſurgeon, and an apothecary, who all, the doctor excepted, live in or near the houſe. The phyſician's duty is to ſee to every thing in general that relates to health, to preſcribe the neceſſary medicines for the hoſpital, to inſtruct the midwives, and to lend his aſſiſtance in difficult births. The ſurgeons muſt inſpect the children who are brought into the education-houſe, ſend the healthy to the rooms devoted to the children, and the ſick or ſuſpected into the hoſpital, where they muſt be alternately preſent. The midwives, who, previouſly to their admiſſion are examined by the phyſician, cannot be abſent from the houſe without leave firſt obtained from the ſuperintendant, and according to their inſtruction, have the care of the lying-in women and the new-born children. For the infants, nurſes, wet and dry, are provided; and every age of the boys as well as girls has its particular guardians of both ſexes.

* Heym's topographical Encyclopædia of the ruſſian empire, *art.* Moſkva, p. 500.

The foundling-hoſpital receives children at *all* hours of the day or night, without any queſtion being put to the bringer, except whether the child has been baptized, and whether it has a name. Children may alſo be carried to the pariſh prieſts, or to the monaſteries and poor-houſes of the city, who immediately ſend them away to the foundling-hoſpital, where the deliverer receives two rubles for each child. The carriers of ſuch children are by day and by night under the ſpecial protection of the police. At the reception of every child, the day, the time, and the ſex are noted in a book, with all that the bringer declares of the circumſtances of the child, the clothes and other articles he brings with it, and the birth-marks and tokens obſerved upon it. Hereupon the baptiſm enſues, if not already adminiſtered; the name is entered in the book, and a little crucifix is hung round its neck with the number under which it is regiſtered. It is now examined by the ſurgeon, and brought to *the childrens'* rooms, where it receives new linen and neceſſary clothes from the magazine; meanwhile the articles of dreſs brought with it, if they be not too miſerable, are depoſited in a magazine apart, there to be kept.

The children are either ſuckled by ſtrong and healthy nurſes, each of whom can nouriſh two babes, or delivered to dry-nurſes who bring them up with other food. The phyſical education alone continues two years, when they come into the great rooms.

rooms. Till the ſixth year boys and girls remain together, and during this period are habituated to eaſy employments. With the ſeventh begins the moral and civil education; thenceforward the preſervation of the phyſical exiſtence is a ſubordinate object, and this is therefore the term we preſcribed to ourſelves for quitting for the preſent this inſtitution *.

On the manner in which this beneficial plan is executed we will hear at leaſt one witneſs, by citing the judgment of a ſagacious and attentive obſerver, who, being an Engliſhman and a traveller, could probably have no intereſt in diſſembling the truth. "The rooms of the foundling hoſpital," ſays Mr. Coxe †, "are lofty and large; the dor-"mitories, which are ſeparate from the work-"rooms, are very airy, and the beds are not "crowded: each foundling, even each infant, "has a ſeparate bed; the bedſteads are of iron; "the ſheets are changed every week, and the "linen three times a week. In going over "the rooms I was particularly ſtruck with "their neatneſs; even the nurſeries were uncom-"monly clean, and without any unwholeſome "ſmells. No cradles are allowed, and rocking "is particularly forbidden. The infants are not

* General plan of the foundling-houſe at Moſco, in the Neuveranderten Ruſsland, vol. ii. 40—47.

† Travels through Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, vol. ii. p. 63. 8vo. edit.

" ſwaddled according to the cuſtom of the country,
" but looſely dreſſed.—I could be no judge merely
" in viſiting the hoſpital, whether the children were
" well inſtructed and the regulations well obſerved:
" but I was perfectly convinced from their beha-
" viour, that they were in general happy and con-
" tented, and could perceive from their looks that
" they were remarkably healthy. This latter cir-
" cumſtance muſt be owing to the uncommon care
" which is paid to cleanlineſs, both in their perſons
" and rooms.

" In another viſit which I paid to this hoſpital,
" I ſaw the foundlings at dinner: the girls and
" boys dine ſeparately. The dining-rooms, which
" are upon the ground-floor, are large and vault-
" ted, and diſtinct from their work-rooms. The
" firſt claſs ſit at table; the reſt ſtand: the little
" children are attended by ſervants; but thoſe of
" the firſt and ſecond claſs alternately wait on each
" other. The dinner conſiſted of beef and mutton
" boiled in broth, with rice; I taſted both, and
" they were remarkably good: the bread was very
" ſweet, and was baked in the houſe, chiefly by the
" foundlings. Each foundling has a napkin, pew-
" ter-plate, a knife, fork, and ſpoon: the napkin
" and table-cloth are clean three times in the week.
" They riſe at ſix, dine at eleven, and ſup at ſix.
" The little children have bread at ſeven and at four.
" When they are not employed in their neceſſary
" occupations the utmoſt freedom is allowed, and
" they are encouraged to be as much in the air as
" poſſible.

" poſſible. The whole was a lovely ſight; and the " countenances of the children expreſſed the utmoſt " content and happineſs."

The confeſſedly ſound principles on which the ſyſtem of phyſical education is built; the great means of relief which this eſtabliſhment has at its diſpoſal; the good management of it hitherto by diſtinguiſhed patriots; the care, attendance, and cleanlineſs, which, from the teſtimony of all impartial obſervers, prevail there; — all theſe circumſtances conſpire in enabling us to conclude with the higheſt degree of probability, that this beneficial inſtitution does not fall ſhort of its primary and proximate aim: but certain data on this ſubject have not as yet come to the knowledge of the public. It would be of great ſervice to the world, and at the ſame time redound to the honour of this inſtitution, if neceſſary ſtatements were given of the numbers received every year, and the other concerns of the houſe. — All that we know at preſent of it is, that, in the twenty years ſince its opening to the end of the year 1786, including thoſe born in the houſe, it had admitted 37,607 children, of whom 1020 were ſent out, and at the end of the laſt mentioned year only 6080 were remaining. If this ſtatement, in which we follow a very authentic writer *, be ſtrictly accurate, the loſs which this inſtitution has ſuſtained muſt ſurely be very conſider-

* Georgi, beſchreib. von St. Peterſb. vol. i. p. 255.

able;

able; but probably only a ſmall part of it would fall upon the foundling-hoſpital, if we knew preciſely the number of thoſe who died immediately after their reception, or brought in with them the germ of diſſolution. We ſhall not be in a condition to aſcertain the real mortality of the houſe, till we are informed by juſt eſtimates how many of the children brought were declared after examination to be perfectly ſound; the remainder which muſt be delivered into the hoſpital immediately after baptiſm, conſiſts of certain victims to death; and none would be ſo unreaſonable as to lay their loſs to the account of a philanthropical inſtitution, which enriches the country from year to year with an ever-increaſing number of healthy, active, and induſtrious burghers.

The foundling-hoſpital at St. Peterſburg, which is, properly ſpeaking, only a diviſion of that at Moſco, was founded in the year 1770, and in 1784 was endowed by imperial munificence with a ſumptuous edifice. The eſtabliſhment is exactly like that of Moſco; the number of foundlings there at the end of the year 1788 amounted to 300. Here alſo the ſame unfortunate circumſtance happens, that a great proportion of the children are brought thither ſick, and many even without a ſpark of life remaining.—Beſides theſe two great inſtitutions, others are erected on the model of them in ſeveral towns of the empire, as at Tula, Kaluga, Yaroſlaf, Kazan, &c.

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In order to render the foundling-hoſpitals of ſtill greater benefit, LYING-IN HOUSES are annexed to them, in which all pregnant women without diſtinction, on merely announcing themſelves, are immediately admitted by the porter; and, without putting to them a queſtion of any kind, are inſtantly, whether it be day or night, conducted to the midwifery rooms. To ſpare thoſe who enter the confuſion they would feel at being known, it is not only ſtrictly forbidden to diſcover any curioſity about them, but it is at their option to keep their face covered during the whole time of their ſtay. The lying-in houſe is provided with all the requiſite perſons and inſtruments; on urgent occaſions the midwives are aſſiſted by the phyſician, who in caſes of neceſſity muſt perform the operation himſelf. As the hour of delivery can ſcarcely be accurately aſcertained, women are permitted to be in the hoſpital a week before and two weeks after lying-in, to which regulation, however, in extraordinary caſes, exceptions are made. During this time the patients enjoy all the needful attendance and nurſing. — At the foundling-hoſpital of St. Peterſburg a proper perſon is appointed as teacher of the art of midwifery, for forming expert practitioners as well for the houſe as for the public in general.

The ſchool of medicine and ſurgery at St. Peterſburg has alſo a ſmall lying-in houſe, capable of admitting

mitting eight or ten females at once, in the peculiar deſign of affording practical information to the pupils of this inſtitution as for the ſake of forming ſkilful accoucheurs. Here, likewiſe, the greateſt ſecrecy is obſerved; when recovered the patients are diſcharged without fee or reward, and they are at liberty either to take their children with them or to leave them for the foundling-hoſpital.

Next to theſe inſtitutions none deſerve our attention more than the SMALL-POX HOSPITALS, erected in the view of extending the practice of inoculation. Ruſſia, in the eighteenth century, appears to have the advantage over moſt other countries in Europe, that eſtabliſhments of general utility meet here proportionately with fewer difficulties, are encouraged with far greater munificence from the throne, and more quickly attain to a generally diffuſed operation. A remarkable inſtance of this is ſeen in the hiſtory of inoculation; a benefit which Ruſſia owes to the enlightened adminiſtration, and to the perſonal example of Catharine II. and her imperial ſon.

Long ere lady Mary Wortley Montague in 1721 brought the art of inoculation from Conſtantinople to England, this mode of preſervation was known to the oriental nations. From England the practice was ſpread into the other countries of Europe, but with very tardy progreſs; as in moſt of theſe countries not only the clergy but even phyſicians ſtood up in oppoſition to it, and acted on the prejudices of the people, always of themſelves diſpoſed

to

to reſiſt any innovation. Four-and thirty years after the introduction of this happy diſcovery only two hundred thouſand were reckoned to have been inoculated; and, during that ſpace, the public confidence in it had ſo much abated, that for fifteen years it was almoſt entirely neglected. — Of all the provinces of the ruſſian empire Livonia was the firſt that employed this preſervative. A phyſician in the circle of Dorpat * made it here firſt known in the year 1756, and practiſed it with ſo much ſucceſs in the country round him, that within eight years he had inoculated 1023 children, of whom only one died. In St. Peterſburg the firſt public experiment was made in September 1768 on ten children, though ſince 1758 ſeveral trials had been hazarded by ſome phyſicians of the place, but without attracting obſervation. In the ſame year Catharine II. ſet a glorious and affecting example to her people, by ſubmitting herſelf, together with her only ſon Paul Petrovitch, then fourteen years old, to inoculation. The operation was performed by our countryman Dr. Dimſdale †, then already famous by his ſucceſsful practice of the art, who, in conſe-

* The name of this perſon, who rendered ſuch ſervice to his country, ought not to be paſſed over in ſilence; it was Schulinus, who had already gained great reputation in thoſe parts by his ſucceſsful treatment of the natural ſmall-pox. See concerning him, Gadebuſch Livonian Bibliotheca, *art.* Schulinus, vol. i. p. 120.

† See Life of Catharine II. vol. i. p. 469.

quence

quence of the proſperous termination of it, was rewarded in a truly imperial manner with riches and honours. In order to perpetuate the memorial of this event, ſo important to the whole nation, an anniverſary thankſgiving was appointed to be kept. The great nobles of the empire, the inhabitants of the reſidence, all ranks and claſſes of people, ſeemed to vie with each other in following ſo illuſtrious an example. Not a ſingle phyſician, not one eccleſiaſtic made any public oppoſition to inoculation; almoſt all of the former adopted it in their practice, and ſeveral among the latter recommended it even from the pulpit, to which the church ſervice of the anniverſary preſented a fair opportunity. To this is even owing the valuable ſeries of diſcourſes which we have before made uſe of, and from which the preſent accounts are principally extracted *.

For the more active and rapid promotion of the practice among the poorer claſſes of people, a public inſtitution for inoculating was erected in the year 1768 at the imperial expence in one of the out-parts of the reſidence, now known by the name of the Small-pox hoſpital, and where every month a certain number of children are inoculated and nurſed for two weeks till their complete recovery. At

* Sermons by J. C. Grot, on inoculation of the ſmall-pox, with particulars relating to the hiſtory of it in Ruſſia, and an appendix on the mortality of the ſmall-pox in Peterſburg, as a help to the examination of the queſtion concerning their harmleſſneſs in Ruſſia.

firſt money was given to parents who brought their children hither; but the numerous inſtances of the ſucceſs of the artificial infection ſoon rendered this encouragement unneceſſary. — Since the year 1783, the ſmall-pox hoſpital has been under the inſpection of the college of general proviſion. It at preſent admits twice a year, in ſpring and autumn, free of all expence, all children that are brought, and has a phyſician and a ſurgeon to attend them. The expences of this inſtitution amount annually to ſix thouſand rubles.

Shortly after the erection of this hoſpital, inoculation was alſo introduced into all the great imperial ſeminaries of education. From St. Peterſburg it gradually ſpread into the interior of the empire. So early as the year 1768, baron von Aſch introduced it into Kief. In the year 1772 the practice of inoculation entered Siberia; the empreſs even conſtituted in Irkutſk a public inſtitution for that purpoſe. In this, within the firſt three years, not only of the Ruſſians, but likewiſe of the nomadic tribes of thoſe parts, 6768 perſons of both ſexes were inoculated. In a period of five years the number of them amounted to 15,580. In Kazan, likewiſe, a public inoculation hoſpital was founded by the governor of the place.

Theſe inſtitutions have ſince ſo greatly increaſed that we are not in a capacity to give a complete liſt of them. Not only moſt of the great towns, but

even many villages and noblemen's eſtates are at preſent provided with theſe hoſpitals. Add to *this*, that the prejudices againſt inoculation are ſo totally vaniſhed, and the conviction of its utility become ſo general, that there are but few parents, at leaſt in the upper ranks, who omit to endeavour at enſuring their children in their earlieſt infancy, by this eaſy operation, from the danger attending the natural infection. In ſeveral diſtricts the country people, who can ſeldom rely on having the aid of a phyſician, have been taught to inoculate themſelves, and they practice this method with the happieſt effects. In Livonia, ever ſince 1769, paſtor Eiſen has acquired great merit by not only inoculating, but by inducing the boors, and eſpecially the mothers, to employ that method under his direction. In the government of Irkutſk, M. Schilling, the ſtaff-ſurgeon of the place, ſtill employs himſelf in teaching the nomadic people, at their own requeſt, the art of inoculation. From May to Auguſt 1791, he inoculated there in the circle of Barguzinſk five hundred and ſixty-five Buræts, thirty-five Tunguſes of the ſteppes, and twenty reindeer-Tunguſes, altogether, therefore, ſix hundred and twenty perſons of both ſexes, of whom only ſix died *.

* According to a Report made to the medical college, October 1791.

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In order to enable us to judge of the effects that have ariſen from theſe ſmall-pox inſtitutions ſince their introduction into the ruſſian empire, it will not be unintereſting to read the following reſult of the peterſburg ſmall-pox hoſpital, drawn up by the academician Kraft, and incorporated in his third memoir on the liſts of births and deaths publiſhed at St. Peterſburg *.

In the eleven years from 1780 to 1790 there were inoculated in this inſtitution 1570 children, 860 males, and 710 females, of whom four died. This proportion is as twenty-five to ten thouſand; or, of a thouſand inoculated children, there die not quite three. On an average, it may be admitted that in Peterſburg of ten thouſand children attacked by the natural ſmall-pox 1428 die; conſequently, the proportion of the mortality of the natural ſmall-pox to the mortality of the inoculated is as one thouſand four hundred and twenty-eight to twenty-five, or as fifty-ſeven to one.

The number of children inoculated in this inſtitution, on an average of eleven years, amounts annually to one hundred and forty-three. Now Peterſburg in the ſame period has yearly 6049 births, and conſequently only the forty-ſecond child of all the births has enjoyed the benefit of this inſtitution. —It is here to be remarked, that parents in eaſy circumſtances have their children inoculated at home,

* Nova acta acad. ſcient. Petropol. tom. viii. p. 253.

and therefore the univerſality of this practice cannot be judged of by the above proportion. — *The* age of the inoculated children was never under three and a half, and uſually from three to ten years. Nine perſons, however, were inoculated at the age of ſixteen, two of twenty-five, and one of forty-ſix.

It would be found very inſtructive if we were enabled to compare theſe ſtatements with thoſe of the ſmall-pox hoſpitals in other towns of Ruſſia. In that of Irkutſk, for example, in five years, from 1773 to 1776 and in the year 1779, in all 6009 perſons were inoculated, of whom forty-three died. Of ten thouſand inoculated here then ſeventy one were loſt, or out of a thouſand ſeven, as the mortality of the peterſburg ſmall-pox hoſpital amounts only to three out of a thouſand. The mortality of the natural ſmall-pox is known to be greater among the nomadic nations; and, beſides, thoſe inoculated at Irkutſk were probably for the moſt part grown perſons.

We cannot cloſe this head without mentioning the inſtitutions againſt the moſt dreadful and deſtructive of all diſeaſes; againſt a diſeaſe which though it appear but ſeldom in the civilized countries of our quarter of the world, yet by the devaſtation it makes, where it has once ſtruck its root, whole generations are ſlain, and whole regions laid waſte. Ruſſia too has experienced this great public calamity, and has learnt to know the effects of the

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PLAGUE from the deſolation it has occaſioned: from her ſituation, her commerce, her borderers, and her wars, ſhe is more expoſed to this horrible contagion than other countries: it becomes naturally, therefore, one of the moſt important concerns of government to obſtruct the communication of the infection by preventive inſtitutions, and to collect practical rules which, in the lamentable caſe of its raging, may mitigate the general diſtreſs. The point of time ſince which this matter has become an important object of ſtate policy is too near the preſent to allow us to forget it; and thanks to the regulations of Catharine II. and to the enlightened age in which we live, that this dreadful cataſtrophe at leaſt did not paſs by without benefit for futurity!

From more antient accounts we learn that Moſco had the misfortune in the 17th century to be ravaged by the plague: in the year 1654 it raged for three months, (July till September,) and did not entirely ceaſe till between the 12th and 25th of December. In the two ſucceeding years it broke out in ſome of the ſouthern diſtricts, but never came to Novgorod. It therefore at that time took nearly the ſame route as it was found to do in the eighteenth century: but as nobody then thought of minuting down the circumſtances of that unhappy event, and the means of prevention that were then had recourſe to, the benefits that might have accrued from that lamentable viſitation were loſt to poſterity; and when

Ruſſia a hundred and ſixteen years afterwards was afflicted with the ſame ſcourge, it was found neceſſary at once to make the people ſenſible of the baneful nature of the diſeaſe, and to find out new meaſures to be adopted againſt it. In order to give permanency to the uſefulneſs of theſe inſtitutions, the commiſſioners, conſiſting of the officers of ſtate and phyſicians appointed to check and to heal the ravages of the plague, reſolved to commit to the preſs all the regulations and writings that came out either during the diſtemper or after it had ceaſed, and to publiſh them together for the information of future times; and it is from this inſtructive collection that we ſhall here lay down ſome of the moſt prominent data as outlines of the hiſtory of that deplorable event *.

The

* To this end the commiſſioners requeſted permiſſion of the directing ſenate, and entruſted the publication to one of their members, the college-counſellor Athanaſius Schafonſky, ſuperior phyſician of the army-hoſpital. The work bears this title: Opiſſanie moravoi yaſvui, &c. that is, Account of the plague which raged at Moſco from the year 1770 to 1772, with a ſupplement of all the regulations that were ordered to be obſerved for the extermination of it. Printed by ſovereign command, in the year 1775, in Moſco, at the imperial univerſity; 4to. pp. 652. without dedication, preface, or contents; with two copper plates. It contains, beſides a two-fold deſcription of the plague compoſed by the editor himſelf, 121 additional papers, as, the writings of the commiſſioners, the reſt of their adopted regulations, the manifeſtoes, ukaſes, opinions of ſeveral phyſicians, and many other pieces relating to this calamitous event. — On

account

The plague made its firſt appearance during the former of the two turkiſh wars in Valakhia, and ſpread itſelf thence, through Moldavia, through Poland, and through Little Ruſſia, to Siyefſk and Bryanſk, two towns not far from the borders of the Ukraine. In Kief it laſted from Auguſt 1770 to the February following; it appeared, indeed, afreſh in the enſuing ſummer, but was preſently checked. The inſtitutions were in general ſo efficacious in theſe parts, that only in Neſhin a ſecond rather ſevere attack of the plague was felt from July till November 1771.

The caſe, however, was far otherwiſe at Moſco. In defiance of all precautions the plague reached the capital, where it was firſt obſerved, though but little, in November 1770, to be in ſome houſes. But, on its breaking out on the 17th of December in the general army-hoſpital, and the head phyſician of it, M. Schafonſky, had informed the medical college of it on the 22d of December, after a conſultation of eight doctors had made a declaration that this ſickneſs was really the plague, that hoſpital was ſhut up, in which, of twenty-ſeven patients, only five recovered. Not till after a quarantine of ſix weeks was the hoſpital opened again,

account of the great extenſiveneſs of the original, I have adhered ſolely to the accurate abſtract, made with the moſt ſcrupulous attention and great ſagacity by Mr. Bachmeiſter, which is to be ſeen in the fifth volume of his Ruſſian bibliotheca, p. 287. —318.

and the building in which the plague had been was burnt. — The infection, according to evident traces, had been brought by people coming from parts that were the theatre of war.

In March 1771 it was firſt known, that ever ſince the beginning of the year an unuſually great mortality had prevailed among the work-people of the great linen-manufactory. By inſenſible degrees this uncommon mortality was diſcovered in other quarters of the town. Now, in conſequence of an examination made by phyſicians on the 11th of March, all the people were ſent away from the manufactory as ſoon as poſſible, and the ſound as well as the ſick all kept under cloſe inſpection; but ſeveral had previouſly made their eſcape, and even people of the town had viſited the manufactory to and fro. Thus, it is natural to ſuppoſe, that the infection was conſtantly ſpreading farther. — The magiſtracy now interpoſed; the police required an account of every diſtempered and dying perſon; and the ſenate convened a medical council of eleven phyſicians, who continued ſitting till the appointment of the above-mentioned commiſſion. This council, at its ſecond meeting on the 23d of March, required that all workmen belonging to the linen manufactory ſhould be removed from the city; an order which could not be ſtrictly executed, as ſeveral of them were abſolutely not to be found. On the 26th of March nine members of the medical council, to the interrogation of the governor of the city,

feldt-

feldt-marſhal count Soltikof, ſent a written anſwer that this malady was really the plague; the other two members were of a different opinion, to the great prejudice of the public, who agreed with them, and therefore neglected the neceſſary precautions. On the 31ſt of March, however, all the eleven members ſubſcribed the propoſed preſervatives, which they had unanimouſly conſulted upon, from this dreadful diſtemper *.

The empreſs, in the mean time, ſeemed to ſurmiſe that all the applications hitherto employed would prove inſufficient; accordingly on the 25th of March ſhe iſſued an order to purſue much ſeverer meaſures, and gave the execution of them to lieutenant-general Yerapkin, who undertook this important commiſſion the 31ſt of March. The firſt thing he did was to place a ſtate-officer in every quarter of the town as inſpector of the malady, and all the phyſicians there were enjoined to pay obedience to his commands. From the daily liſts of the† deaths was

* Theſe propoſals relate moſtly to cleanlineſs of the houſes, ſtreets, air, &c. The filling up the graves in which the dead bodies were depoſited with lime was thought not adviſable. The public places had been long before fumigated, but commonly with dung and other impure ſubſtances. Alſo an order came out in March to ſeal up all the public baths.

† Theſe liſts deſerve, at leaſt according to the months, to be inſerted here, as they plainly ſhew the violence and viciſſitudes of this horrid diſeaſe. It is only to be obſerved, that they are not entirely complete, as the circumſtances ſhew, and as Schafonſky

was ſeen indeed the progreſs of the peſtilence; but as till then no bills of mortality had ever been framed in Moſco, there were no means of comparing the number of deaths with that of ordinary years.

In regard to the extent and population of the city, the number of the deaths in April 1771 was reckoned moderate; and it appears that the exiſtence of the plague was at that time more doubted of than ever it had been before. In the mean time an order ſigned by the empreſs's own hand came out to carry all bodies out of town for burial; alſo ſome of the entrances to the city were faſtened up.

During the months of April and May the plague had almoſt entirely ceaſed among the above-mentioned people of the linen-manufactory in the monaſteries which ſerved them for hoſpitals; and in the city it was miſtaken, as the inhabitants were inexhauſtible in inventions to give it another appearance. —In

himſelf remarks. Many corpſes were concealed and ſecretely interred; numbers of people had already left the city ſo early as July, and according to Schafonſky's own declaration, but few inhabitants were in September left in the city. Now, ſeeing, as Mr. Bachmeiſter obſerves, that in September above twenty-one thouſand perſons died, and the uſual population amounting to upwards of four hundred thouſand, then in that one month, not the twentieth, but perhaps the ſixth, perhaps the fifth, or even a far greater part of the then preſent inhabitants, muſt have died. —The ſtate of the population after the plague may be ſeen from the ſummary ſtatement of the following years. During the latter

—In June it was ordered to ſearch for the ſcattered clothes and other matters belonging to the linen-manu-

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latter (1775) the court was at Moſco, and conſequently the number of inhabitants greater than ordinary.

In the Year 1771.	DEATHS In the city.	In hoſpitals and quarantines.	Together.	BIRTHS.
April	665	79	744	—
May	795	56	851	—
June	994	105	1099	—
July	1410	298	1708	—
Auguſt	6423	845	7268	—
September	19761	1640	21401	—
October	14935	2626	17561	—
November	3466	1769	5235	—
December	319	486	805	—
Totals	48768	7904	56672	
1772.				
January	209	121	330	—
February	274	78	352	—
March	304	30	334	—
April	374	—	374	—
May	285	—	285	—
June	247	—	247	—
July	276	—	276	85
Auguſt	354	—	354	249
September	238	—	238	231
October	268	—	268	363
November	284	—	284	342
December	350	—	350	240
Totals	3363	229	3592	1510
1773	—	—	7195	3989
1774	—	—	7527	3395
1775 to the end of Auguſt	—	—	6559	2108

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manufacturers and to burn them: but this, like many other ſalutary ordinances, had a directly contrary effect; for now theſe things were ſecretly conveyed into other houſes, and thus ſpread the infection the more. As the flight of the rich and noble, which had continued ſome months, muſt have carried the ſickneſs into the country, a command was iſſued in Auguſt to viſit their ſervants and to detain the ſuſpected; the reſt had liberty to go away. Now likewiſe the common tippling-houſes were ſhut up, and the order for ſealing up the baths was repeated. — In this month the ravages made by the plague were manifeſted in a very dreadful manner; many of the inhabitants therefore endeavoured to provide for their ſafety, by locking up their houſes and court-yards. The common people regarded all the applications recommended by the magiſtracy only with great diſlike. They were principally ſet againſt the ſick-houſes and quarantines, which they conſidered as unneceſſary inventions of the phyſicians; they reſiſted the viſiting of the ſick, and would have murdered the college-counſellor Schafonſky, if an inſpector of the quarter had not come to his reſcue. On the other hand, the ſectariſts known by the name of raſkolniks, diſtinguiſhed themſelves from the great

In the four years from 1783 to 1786, the number of births amounted to 27,240, and the deaths were 19,922: conſequently, on an average, the annual number of births 6810; of deaths 4980.

multitude by their docility and obedience. All of that ſect who dwelt in Moſco, and many of them in its vicinity, maintained an infirmary and a quarantine-houſe for themſelves, and at their own expence without the city.

The month of September was the moſt terrible of all. To the devaſtations of the plague, which had now riſen to their height, was added the well-known inſurrection of the populace, in which the archbiſhop of Moſco loſt his life on the 16th of September, and which probably could not have been ſo eaſily quelled by ſuch a handful of troops if by the flights and deaths the number of the people had not been much diminiſhed. — The empreſs, greatly afflicted at this lamentable ſtate of things, reſolved to ſet out for Moſco herſelf; but this journey meeting with inſurmountable difficulties ſhe diſpatched count (afterwards prince) Orlof thither, with full powers to put in execution every thing he ſhould think neceſſary to the extirpation of this dreadful calamity. His preſence, and the regulations adopted by him, were ſoon attended with beneficial effects. Several of thoſe who had quitted the city now returned, and even the behaviour of the common people took a different turn.

Two boards of commiſſioners were now conſtituted, who entered on their employment the 12th of October, the one for preventing the contagion, and the other for counteracting its effects. They were to make all the regulations they could deviſe for

for theſe purpoſes; and all phyſicians, apothecaries, hoſpitals, &c. were made dependent on them. The executive commiſſion, beſide all other affairs of police, were to ſee to the due performance of all that the other two commiſſions required. The former immediately publiſhed a printed paper of directions what means to uſe as preſervatives from the plague, and pointing out to ſuch as were already attacked by it, how they themſelves could moſt contribute to their recovery. As the continued abhorrence of the inhabitants againſt the public hoſpitals occaſioned perpetual concealments, it was thought expedient to give to every perſon, on his diſcharge, in conſequence of a cure, beſides the ordinary allowance of proviſion and new clothing, a gratuity of five, or if he were married, ten rubles. On this, there were doubtleſs a great number of ſick; but many healthy perſons came likewiſe, feigning themſelves to be ſick from motives of covetouſneſs. For the children of parents who *had died* of the plague, prince Orlof cauſed the erection of a peculiar orphan-houſe. After having acquitted himſelf of theſe and many other perilous attempts, he returned to St. Peterſburg on the 21ſt of *November*.

By this time the unfortunate inhabitants of Moſco were at length convinced of their miſerable error concerning the nature of this diſtemper. Their manſuetude and readineſs to concur in all the meaſures adopted by government, produced a viſible diminution

diminution in the number of deaths from day to day, till at length in January 1772, not a trace of the peſtilence remained.

That I may give my readers ſome idea of the condition of this great and populous city during the prevalence of this tremendous ſcourge, and for ſome time after, I ſhall preſent only ſome ſtriking features from the picture of their diſtreſs, which probably no one will read without horror. — A total ſtop was put to innumerable branches of buſineſs and the ſeveral occupations of ſocial life, and new ones roſe up in their ſtead. Many houſes were ſhut up, in the ſtreets were ſeen but few paſſengers, and every day was prolific in new ſcenes of deſolation and affright. — To prevent a ſcarcity of proviſions the government erected large houſes, in which the neceſſary articles of conſumption were depoſited. The loſs of employment had occaſioned great diſtreſs to numbers of people; they were ſet to work in heightening the wall and deepening the ditch round what is called the chamber-college. In ſpite of all theſe methods and many others, it was found neceſſary to denounce the penalty of death againſt ſuch as ſhould convey away goods and property belonging to infected perſons from the houſes that were ſtanding empty, or open graves for deſpoiling the bodies of ſuch as had died of the plague. — Dwelling-houſes or courts, in which only ſome of their inhabitants had died of the diſtemper, were computed at upwards of ſix thouſand, and in which

which they all died, at more than three thouſand. Now, as Moſco before the eruption of the *plague* contained 12,538 dwelling-houſes, it follows, that not the fourth part of them remained free from that viſitation. — From April 1771 to the end of February 1772, in the ſick-houſes and quarantines 12,565 perſons were maintained at the expence of the crown.

Such was the ſtate of the city during that doleful period, and how many new regulations and troubles did it not coſt to reſtore the former eſtabliſhments; to reduce all buſineſſes and employments to the channel which they had left; to revive trade and commerce; and to do all this with ſafety and without danger of a ſecond deſolation! The moſt urgent and indiſpenſable meaſures to be taken were thoſe relating to the purification of infected houſes *, which they began to do on the 12th of December 1771, and continued till the following ſpring.

* Among the buildings which actually underwent purification were a hundred and ſeventeen churches which had loſt their prieſts or church-officers by the plague, and on that account had been ſealed up; forty-five courts of judicature, magiſtracy-houſes and forty-ſix other public-offices, comprehending thoſe buildings which had been devoted to public uſes only on account of the diſtemper; as for example ſeveral monaſteries and the houſe of prince Orlof, which he had given up to be a ſick-houſe for the nobleſſe; ſeven thouſand dwelling-houſes or courts, which were thought worth purifying, and above two thouſand bad or ruinous habitations, which were totally demoliſhed; a hundred and thirteen manufactories, whereof ſixty-eight were for the weaving of linen, woollen, and ſilk, altogether having 2716 looms.

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This was conducted by clearing them of all infected articles; by letting in the freſh air on all ſides, by expoſing them to the ſeverities of the froſt, by fumigations *, and other methods. — The thirteen burial-places aſſigned for thoſe who died of the plague were raiſed more than an arſhine in height by freſh earth, which labour alone coſt thirty-five thouſand rubles. — On the total extinction of all remains of the peſtilential poiſon, regard was particularly had to the corpſes, which, to ſave themſelves from the quarantaines, the inhabitants had either buried in their houſes or thrown into concealed places, and conſequently on the return of ſpring might be the occaſion of mortal exhalations.

* The commiſſion for quelling the contagion cauſed three receipts for making the fumigatory powders to be publiſhed, and the powders themſelves to be ſold at a low price in all the apotheke, and to be diſtributed gratis to the poor. The commiſſion, of whoſe invention they were, reſolved firſt to be fully convinced of the beneficial effects of them by experience. They therefore took ſome clothes of perſons who had died of the plague, that were impregnated with the perſpired vapour, and on which were apparent marks of the matter that had iſſued from buboes and carbuncles; hung them up in a houſe in which all the inhabitants had died of the plague; fumigated them for four days, twice each day thoroughly with theſe powders; cauſed them afterwards to be aired for ſix days, and gave them to ſeven people to put on, who had forfeited their lives, and were obliged to wear them ſixteen days ſucceſſively in the ſame houſe, nevertheleſs they all remained free from any infection, and after performing a quarantine of a fortnight, they were allowed to mix with other healthy people.

By

By the vigorous meaſures that were taken to the diſcovery of them, near a thouſand corpſes made their appearance, with which, as they were moſtly found without coffins, various proceedings were adopted. Thoſe which had lain within the dwellings, were ordered to be taken, by the katerſhniks (a ſpecies of galley-ſlaves) appointed for that purpoſe, with a part of the ſurrounding earth, in ſeparate boxes or ſhells, to the uſual burial-places, and there to burn the carts on which they were brought. The pits out of which ſuch bodies had been drawn were carefully filled up with earth. While thus employed, the katerſhniks were made to wear waxed clothes and gloves, to keep ginger and other ſpices in their mouths, and to ſtop their ears and noſtrils with cotton ſteeped in vinegar. Laſtly they were obliged to waſh themſelves with vinegar, and to remain for at leaſt eight days in a place apart from the town. On the other hand, thoſe bodies which lay without the buildings, were ſuffered to remain unmoved, and were only covered to the height of an arſhine with chalk and rubbiſh. Though this interment laſted till the enſuing ſpring, yet, from the great precautions that were taken, not one of the many labourers, who could not avoid the contact with the dead bodies, caught any infection. — Notwithſtanding the good reaſons for ſuppoſing every ſpark of the contagion to be utterly extinct, yet the regulations were kept in force till the ſummer of 1772.

From

From the firſt of December of that year the city of Moſco was declared to be free from the plague, and a ſound place, and the greater part of the regulations that had been adopted againſt it were gradually diminiſhed; yet the commiſſion for ſtopping the plague continued till the 6th of September 1775, at which period it, together with all the quarantaines and poſt-ſtations eſtabliſhed within the empire on account of the plague, were aboliſhed by an ukaſe from the ſenate. — The expences occaſioned by this public calamity to the ſtate were very heavy; that for the preſervation of Moſco alone coſt the crown four hundred thouſand rubles.

After peruſing this brief account, nobody will be ſurpriſed that it was found impoſſible to ſtifle the peſtilence in its birth. Beſides the cauſes which appear from the foregoing narrative, one of the greateſt obſtacles was in the local poſition of Moſco, which is thirty-ſix verſts in circumference, and cannot with ſo much propriety be called a city as the firſt province of the empire. The majority of the inhabitants are not under the juriſdiction of the corporation, and the magiſtrates have no power over their entering or quitting the city. It was theſe people who, in the ſequel, when they perceived the danger and would not conform to the ordinances that were iſſued, haſtened in crowds to their homes, and thereby propagated the contagion in the governments of Moſco, Smolenſk, Niſhney-Novgorod,

Kazan, and Voronetch. To prevent theſe diſorders would have required half an army; whereas at that time, on account of the war, there was but one regiment of infantry, and a few ſmall companies of ſoldiers in Moſco. It was even found neceſſary, as many of theſe died on the road, to raiſe a police-battalion in the capital, for guarding the poſts, and as much as poſſible to preſerve tranquillity and order.

Admirable and humane as the regulations and ſacrifices made on the part of government on this occaſion were, not leſs ſo were the pains that were taken by the commiſſioners for rendering this dreadful experience beneficial to poſterity. The collection of memorials which they publiſhed on this unhappy event contains, beſides the preſcriptions peculiar to the circumſtances as they aroſe, in a copious narrative of practical obſervations and conſequences, a multitude alſo of excellent rules which may ſerve as a pattern and foundation for the methods to be purſued in ſimilar caſes. Among them are, a comprehenſive medical deſcription of the plague, its nature, cauſes, characteriſtics, contingencies, and operations; the means of preſervation, &c. — Directions drawn up by twenty-three phyſicians and ſurgeons for the conduct of common people infected by the diſeaſe, and what remedies they ought to uſe. — A paſtoral letter from the archbiſhops to the prieſts, directing them how to preſerve themſelves from infection in the diſcharge of their functions. —

A complete deſcription of the method of proceeding obſerved in the peſt-houſes. — An inſtruction ſhewing how the relics of infectious matter may be expelled from houſes and goods. — Deſcriptions and plans of quarantaines and houſes for the ſick, with ſeveral other particulars. — The patriotic perſonages, who brought this uſeful undertaking to effect, have the greater claim on the gratitude of their country, as it has frequently ſince been enabled to perceive the good effects of their advice *.

In order, however, to guard as much as poſſible againſt ſimilar events, and even to prevent the communication of the plague, ſince the acquiſition of the Otchakof-ſteppe, and the provinces from Poland, three permanent quarantaines have been erected along the frontiers of Ruſſia and Turkey; namely, in the harbour of Odeſſa (formerly Hadſhibey) on the Euxine, in the city of Yampol in the government of Brazlau, and in the village of Shvanetz in the government of Podolia. Each of theſe quarantaines has a preſident, an inſpector, a ſtaff-ſurgeon with an aſſiſtant, a tranſlator, &c. and a company of two hundred ſoldiers, with their proper officers. The expences of the eſtabliſhment of each of theſe quarantaines amount to 3475 rubles, in which, however, the garniture, proviſions, and

* In the autumn of 1772, and in December 1773, the plague made its appearance in ſome of the ſouthern diſtricts of the empire, particularly at Kitzliar and Moſdok; but by the preſcriptions of theſe commiſſioners it was ſoon extirpated and prevented entirely from ſpreading farther.

ammunition of the company are not comprised. Beſides the ſum allotted for medicaments, the governor of every government, that is furniſhed with a quarantaine, is obliged, in caſe of emergency, immediately to procure all proper requiſites, and to demand medicines from the medical people in office *.

All the eſtabliſhments which we have hitherto been deſcribing for preſerving the population have properly no other aim than to the health of the inhabitants; but, beſides ſickneſs and death, there are numberleſs other evils, phyſical and moral, which prevent the increaſe of population. A circumſtantial detail of all the ſubjects that lie within the province of the medical-police, is beyond the ſtated limits of our plan, which comprehends too many articles to allow of their being all complete. We ſhall, therefore, confine ourſelves to a ſhort and abrupt ſpecification of the moſt material of theſe impediments, ſo far as they concern the population of the empire in general.

Scarcity, bad quality, and dearneſs of proviſions, fall immediately under this rubric. — In a country of ſuch vaſt extent as the ruſſian empire, the diverſity of climate and ſoil muſt naturally occaſion a very ſtriking inequality in regard to the quantity, the goodneſs, and the price of the various articles of food; but this very inequality facilitates

* Ukaſe of the 18th of Auguſt 1795. Journal von Rufsland, tom. v. p. 178—184.

to

to a wiſe adminiſtration the means of preventing a general ſcarcity, as the ſuperfluity of one region is made to balance the deficiencies of another. The greater part of the ruſſian empire is ſo abundant in ſuch products as are of general and indiſpenſable conſumption, as to have ſufficient for bartering againſt ſuch as may be wanting, and alſo for ſupplying the poorer provinces *. Only the regions that lie moſt to the north and to the eaſt are ſo ſparingly provided by nature, that the ſubſiſtence of their inhabitants depends on the importation from other governments; but this unavoidable diſadvantage is greatly alleviated by navigable rivers and canals, by good roads, by the ever-increaſing commerce of the country, and by the free communication encouraged by the government between the

* Concerning the extreme cheapneſs of the neceſſaries of life in the interior provinces, many examples may be ſeen in the Journals of the academical travellers. At Kraſnoyarſk, for inſtance, about the year 1772 a pood of rye-flour coſt from two to three kopeeks, of wheat-flour about five kopeeks, of butchers-meat from fifteen to twenty-five kopeeks; a cow was to be bought for a ruble, a kid for fourteen kopeeks at the utmoſt, &c. Pallas, travels, vol. iii. p. 5—12. — Since that time the prices have riſen ſomewhat, but not conſiderably. — Fiſh in many parts are ſcarcely of any value at all. In ſeveral provinces, where the corn cannot be diſpoſed of in the vicinity, the price is incredibly low. In others all ſorts of game are in ſuch aſtoniſhing plenty that there are no purchaſers for it. — In general all the neceſſaries of life in the interior of Ruſſia (ſome great towns excepted) are cheaper than in any other country in Europe.

ſeveral provinces of the empire. Inſtead of the numerous intermediate tolls, which in many other countries encumber the diſtribution of the articles for home conſumption, in Ruſſia no pains are ſpared to facilitate and to ſecure by laws the beneficial conjunction of all the parts of this prodigious empire. From the coaſts of the Baltic to the ſhores of the eaſtern ocean the merchant can here tranſport his commodities without once being obliged to ſubmit them to viſitation.

In order, however, not to render the ſupport of the inhabitant entirely dependent on the capricious courſe and the fluctuating relations of commerce, the adminiſtration has adopted the prudent meaſure of eſtabliſhing in every government a principal and ſeveral ſmaller granaries; and in the larger towns are public magazines, from which the poorer claſſes of people may be ſupplied with the two moſt indiſpenſable neceſſaries, meal and fire-wood, in moderate quantities, and at a reaſonable price; the crown merely repaying itſelf the capital advanced, without requiring any compenſation for the expence of carriage, ſtoring up, and preſerving, or the cuſtomary duties. By theſe and ſeveral other regulations, which moſtly owe their exiſtence to the late empreſs, it is ſo managed, that a total and abſolute dearth of bread is but rarely felt in particular circles of the poorer governments, whereas formerly it was not unuſual in the northernmoſt provinces, to make up for the failure of flour by pounded tree-bark and other

other unnatural kinds of aliment *. By the extenſive practice of cultivating potatoes, a new reſource is afforded to the people of theſe countries for inſuring their ſupport; and alſo the gradual tranſition of the nations of the ſteppes from the nomadic way of life to the practice of agriculture is continually opening a more comfortable proſpect for the future.

A ſecond very material impediment to population is the national propenſity to inflammatory liquors.

* It is, however, ſtill a queſtion, whether this *unuſual* food be alſo really *unnatural*, that is, whether it be prejudicial to health and detrimental to population. — That a whole people in the *conſtant* uſe of ſuch diet could loſe nothing of its phyſical ſtrength and vigour, we have remarkable inſtances in ſeveral of the northern nations, and particularly the Dalecarlians in Sweden. "The Dalecarlians," ſays a very accurate obſerver, who ſpent a long time in that country, "inhabit the moſt unfruitful and mountainous part of the kingdom. The ſummits of their mountains are covered with eternal ſnow; a long and hard winter clothes even their vallies in the ſame diſmal garb. Far from affording them any of the accommodations of life, their inhoſpitable clime ſcarcely yields them thoſe humble ſupplies, which by the more ſouthern nations of Europe are commonly called its firſt indiſpenſable neceſſaries. For want of corn they are forced to mix their bread with the bark of certain trees; and even this wretched diet conſtitutes their ſole nouriſhment. Unacquainted with the arts of the ſecond order which provide for the conveniences of life, and from the nature of their ſoil excluded from agriculture, they devote themſelves almoſt entirely to the labours of the mines. From their infancy inured to every kind of hardſhip, they compoſe, however, of all the inhabitants of Sweden, the ſtouteſt and the boldeſt race of men," &c. Hiſtoire de la derniere revolution de Suede, en 1772, p. 157.

This propenſity, which ſeems peculiar to the northern nations, and in the eyes of a philoſophical obſerver may be defended by a number of concurrent circumſtances, is nevertheleſs an important object to the government, which in the increaſe of the revenue obtains but a very lamentable compenſation for the loſs it ſuffers in the numbers, ſtrength, durability, and ſervice of its ſubjects. We have heretofore endeavoured to give a ſenſible repreſentation in figures of the worſt ſide of this loſs by a calculation in all probability not exaggerated; no farther remark is therefore neceſſary here for rendering more apparent the extent and the effects of this evil. Indeed the government, by mere ordinances, can in this matter do little or nothing: the total privation of a liquor really wholeſome to the northern countryman would be in many reſpects impracticable, and would be ſcarcely adviſable were it even poſſible. The reſult of the matter then is this, to endeavour at ſome means for ſetting bounds to the intemperate uſe of it; and this is not the work of ten or a dozen years. To alter the manners of a people requires greater and more powerful motives than can be brought into action within the ſpace of one generation. Laws, religion, and education are certainly powerful means, when they combine to one general aim; but their effects will not be viſible till the ſecond or third generation; and even then only under the pre-ſuppoſition that civil proſperity has elevated in the great body of the people

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the ſentiment of human dignity, and called forth an inclination for the nobler ſatisfactions of life *.

Forced and unequal marriages are likewiſe a hindrance to population, which the government ſhould oppoſe as far as poſſible. It is well known to be not unuſual among the common people in Ruſſia for a young lad to connect himſelf with a much older woman, for the ſake of bringing into the family one perſon more that is able to work; an evil ariſing for the moſt part from the covetouſneſs of the father, and beſides the detriment it occaſions to population has alſo a pernicious influence on morals. — In many parts of the country, where the boors pay their lords a pecuniary tax, in return receiving paſſports with which they may follow their trade all over the empire without moleſtation, the emigrations occaſioned in this manner are the cauſe of unfruitful marriages. Apart from his wife for whole years together, the countryman roams about the diſtant provinces, till the beſt years of his life are over; and the ſtate not unfrequently loſes all the benefit that might reaſonably be expected from ſuch

* See two excellent treatiſes relative to this ſubject; Revolutions in the diet of Europe, for theſe three hundred years paſt, by profeſſor Leidenfroſt; in Schlœtzer's literary correſpondence, tom. viii. book 44, p. 93. — and pieces by the court-counſellor Michaelis of Gottingen, on the methods of weaning a nation from brandy; in Schlœtzer's book which we have ſo often quoted: On the innoxiouſneſs of the ſmall-pox in Ruſſia.

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an union *. — Sometimes hard-hearted noblemen refuſe to let a young woman marry when her ſuitor is a youth belonging to another eſtate, or only conſent to ſuch a marriage on condition that ſhe bring another girl in her place, or pay a compenſation in money. — In ſome provinces it was formerly the cuſtom for people who were deſirous to marry, to aſk *permiſſion* of the governor or commander of the town, for which they were obliged to pay a fee either in money or in cattle †. This pernicious and oppreſſive practice, however, Catharine II. entirely aboliſhed by the manifeſto of grace of the year 1775. — The purchaſe of wives, which is cuſtomary among the Samoyedes, the Oſtiaks, the Mordvines, the Tſchuvaſches, Vogules, Tunguſes, Votiaks, Buræts, and ſeveral other tartarian tribes, cannot be ſo eaſily ſuppreſſed, as an old national practice to which uncultivated people are known to be attached with a ſort of religious reverence; yet there are ſome races, for inſtance, among the Tartars, *who* have voluntarily and of their own accord relinquiſhed this infamous traffic ‡. — The queſtion, whether the polygamy of the mohammedan and heatheniſh nations be favourable or detrimental to population, can ſcarcely be ſolved with any certainty, as no liſts of births and deaths are kept in unchriſtian coun-

* Inſtruction for framing a code of laws, ſect. 269 — 271.

† Hupel's political conſtitution of the ruſſian empire, tom. i. p. 599.

‡ Pallas, travels, tom. iii. p. 400.

tries;

tries; it is however a problem, the ſolution whereof cannot be unintereſting to the ſtate.

The clergy in Ruſſia, it is well known, occaſion no remarkable diſadvantage to population, as all ſecular prieſts, and conſequently by far the greater part of that body, are at liberty to marry. The celibacy of the monks is by the wiſe reſtrictions of the monaſtic life upon the whole of no ſignificance. — Far more ſenſible, on the other hand, is the loſs which population ſuſtains by the ſoldiery. So long as war continues to be a neceſſary evil, this detriment cannot indeed be entirely annihilated: but its noxious effects may be greatly mitigated by prudent and humane regulations. The loſs of men in fighting againſt the enemies of the country is a ſacrifice made by the ſtate for the preſervation of the whole, and for which it is compenſated by advantages which in a ſhort time repair the population again; but the loſs which the army ſuſtains in levying recruits, in quarters of cantonment, in hoſpitals, and on marches, is attended with no compenſation to the ſtate, and therefore can never be guarded againſt with ſufficient precaution. — The regulation which aims at reducing the celibacy of the ruſſian armies and fleets is highly worthy of imitation. A great part of the ſoldiers are actually married; ſeveral border-regiments and garriſon-battalions have pieces of land allotted to them for their ſupport in lieu of pay, or in addition to it, where they are at once uſeful to agriculture and to population. According to an eſtimate made ſome years ago, it was reckoned that

that in the field regiments alone and a few garriſons, about eighteen thouſand ſons of ſoldiers are taught and maintained at the expence of the ſtate in ſchools appointed for that purpoſe *; ſimilar inſtitutions are kept up for all the regiments of guards.

Laſtly, the hard treatment to which the children of the common people are expoſed in their early infancy may be reckoned among the general impediments to population. True it is that they are ſteeled and hardened by this means for the maturer age againſt the changes of climate and the viciſſitudes of weather, to perſeverance, to toil, and patient ſuffering; but what numbers of them periſh in the ſeaſoning, whoſe weaker frame would have been juſt as uſeful to the ſtate! Nor did this remark eſcape the diſcernment of Catharine II. "The boors," ſays the Inſtruction †, "have, generally ſpeaking, "twelve, fifteen, to twenty children by one mar-"riage; but it rarely happens that the fourth part "of them reach maturity. A fault muſt therefore "neceſſarily lie ſomewhere, either in regard to "nouriſhment, manner of life, or education, by "which this hope of the country is cut off. In "what a flouriſhing ſtate ſhould we behold the em-"pire, if by wiſe inſtitutions we could obviate or "prevent ſuch a deſtructive evil!"

* On the population of the ruſſian empire; in Hupel's northern miſcellanies, tom. i. p. 125.

† Inſtruction for framing a code of laws, chap. xii. ſect. 266.

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Theſe may perhaps be the moſt general and moſt material impediments to the progreſs of population. Againſt moſt of them the government has endeavoured to apply the moſt effectual remedies; but inſtitutions, abuſes, and habits, which have become inveterate by the practice of ſucceſſive ages, are not to be rooted out in the ſpace of a ſmall number of years. No prince in modern times has ever made the ſubject of population ſo intimate a concern of government as the late empreſs. From the firſt moment of her reign it was one of the favourite objects of her great and active mind. Not content with having enſured the preſervation of the inhabitants, and weakened or annihilated the obſtacles to population, ſhe moreover applied millions of rubles to the purpoſe of rearing uſeful burghers in the empire, and TO INCREASE THE POPULATION BY AN ACCESSION FROM WITHOUT. — This method, the moſt difficult and tedious of all, was however not ſolely directed to ſo ſimple an end; by the acquiſition and diſtribution of induſtrious people of good morals, the ſeed of a ſuperior civilization would naturally at the ſame time be ſown among the inhabitants of thoſe waſte regions where it grew up and flouriſhed under the benign and foſtering ſceptre of that monarch. The account of that remarkable creation is too intereſting a fragment of the hiſtory of civilization in the ruſſian empire, to be here paſſed over in total ſilence.

So early in her reign as December 1762, Catharine the ſecond publiſhed a manifeſto, inviting foreigners

foreigners upon advantageous terms to come and ſettle in her dominions. In July 1763 the empreſs conſtituted a tutelary chancery for the protection of foreigners, inveſted with equal privileges with the other colleges of the empire. The main deſign of this inſtitution was to take the foreigners into its protection immediately on their ſetting foot in Ruſſia, and forward them according to the directions contained in the manifeſto, to the place of their deſtination. It received annually two hundred thouſand rubles, which, beſides the purchaſe of a building for the uſe of the chancery, was to be ſolely employed in providing ſeed-corn, cow-houſes, implements of huſbandry, &c. for the coloniſts, and in the erection of manufactories. The tutelary chancery were enjoined to procure intelligence concerning all waſte and untenanted places, to direct the conſtruction of new eſtabliſhments, to watch over their maintenance and advancement, and accordingly to keep up a correſpondence with the ruſſian miniſters at foreign courts. They afterwards received an exemption from all reſponſibility excepting to the empreſs herſelf.

Shortly after a ſecond manifeſto appeared, more accurately defining the advantages and gratuities under which foreigners were invited to ſettle in the ruſſian empire. As this ſtate-paper has been adopted as the baſis of all later colonizings, and the precepts contained in it form in ſome degree the civil conſtitution of a numerous and by no means inſignificant

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claſs of people; it will not be ſuperfluous to give here its moſt material particulars in a ſhort abſtract.

Foreigners of all denominations may ſettle in whatever part of the empire they pleaſe, and to that end need only apply either directly to the tutelary chancery, or in the frontier-towns to the governors and commanders. If their means be not competent to the journey, they will be furniſhed with money by the ruſſian miniſters and reſidents at foreign courts, and conveyed at the imperial expence to Ruſſia. — Exemption from taxes for a ſtated time, which, according to the ſtandard of utility in the colonies, is ſet down at five, ten, and thirty years *; free dwelling for one half year, dating from the day of arrival. — To thoſe who intended to follow the farming buſineſs or ſome trades or manufactures, a tract of arable land adequate to their purpoſes is allotted, and all neceſſary advances at their ſetting out. For the erecting of a dwelling-houſe, for the purchaſe of live ſtock, implements, veſſels, and other materials, the neceſſary money will be advanced without intereſt from the imperial coffers, which after the expiration of ten years is to be paid at three ſeveral inſtalments. — The internal conſtitution of their juriſdiction is left to the option of the

* Moſt of the colonies, however, after that time was elapſed, had a farther grant of immunity from all taxes of whatever nature, for the ſame number of years as before.

coloniſts

coloniſts who eſtabliſh themſelves in whole villages; but always in ſubmiſſion to the common law of the empire. — Importation of property duty-free, and even a quantity of commodities, the value of which for a family ſhall not exceed three hundred rubles. — Exemption from civil and military ſervice. — Refreſhment-money and travelling expences from the frontiers of the empire to the place of their deſtination. — Free ſale and exemption from duties for ten years on the exportation of all articles in the colonies which have not hitherto been produced or wrought up in Ruſſia. — Foreign capitaliſts who ſet up fabrics, manufactories, or workſhops, may buy as many boors and vaſſals as are requiſite to their undertaking. — The colonies may keep fairs and markets without paying any toll. — All theſe advantages extend alſo to the children of the new ſettlers, even though they be born in Ruſſia. Their years of exemption are to be reckoned from the arrival of their parents or anceſtors; after the expiration whereof they are all bound to pay the taxes and ſervices that are cuſtomary in the country: thoſe who are deſirous of quitting the empire are at liberty to do ſo, but on condition that after a ſtay of five years they pay the fifth; after having been ſettled from five to ten years, the tenth part of the property they have acquired in the country, into the imperial treaſury. Whoever requires diſtinct privileges, beyond what are granted in the manifeſto,

feſto, may apply for that purpoſe to the tutelary chancery *.

Theſe invitations and advantages have drawn a great multitude of foreigners, particularly Germans, into Ruſſia. The parts in which they ſettled to the largeſt amount were the governments of St. Peterſburg, Voronetch, Tchernigof, Ekatarinoſlaf, and Saratof. The moſt numerous colonies fixed upon the laſt of theſe on both ſhores of the Volga and the Medveditza; on which account it was found neceſſary to erect there a comptoir of the tutelary chancery. After the introduction of the new vice-royalties this department was however aboliſhed as uſeleſs, and all the colonies were put under the common juriſdiction. On this occaſion the empreſs remitted to the coloniſts of Saratof, who, on account of the inconveniences they experienced from their ſituation and the unfitneſs of the ſoil for the purpoſes of agriculture in the parts where they had ſettled, had been obliged to remove to other diſtricts, the whole of the expences of building their houſes, amounting to the ſum of 1,025,479 rubles †.

The coloniſts in the government of Saratof moſtly took to agriculture and the breeding of cattle; yet they have among them many expert handicraftſmen, who have ſettled in the neighbouring towns, where their exquiſite workmanſhip procures them an ample income. But the little

* Manifeſto and ukaſe concerning the tutelary chancery.

† Ukaſe bearing date the 20th of April 1782.

manufacturing town of Sarepta, built by the evangelical brethren, or Moravians, is in an eminently flouriſhing ſtate, the neat pieces of workmanſhip executed there being diſpoſed of over all Ruſſia; on which account they have alſo eſtabliſhed conſiderable warehouſes in St. Peterſburg, Reval, and ſeveral other towns. —Since the abolition of the tutelary chancery, the coloniſts, as debtors to the crown, are under the ſuperintendance of the office of exchequer; but matters of police and law are decided by the circle-magiſtracy and other courts. Each colony has, beſides, what is called a *colony-court*, conſiſting of a preſident annually choſen by the community, with ſome aſſeſſors and elders. The eccleſiaſtical conſtitution is framed upon the mode of religion which each colony profeſſes; they conſiſt of fifty-ſeven lutheran, thirteen calviniſtic, thirty catholic, and one mixed. The five lutheran and and the three calviniſtic clergymen, are under the authority of the college of juſtice at *St. Peterſburg*, which hitherto ſupplies the place of a chief conſiſtory; the four catholic prieſts, one of whom is always ſuperior, are dependent on the archbiſhop of Mohilef. All the colonies in the government of Saratof, amounting to a hundred and one in number, contained in the year 1790 together 5624 families, which conſiſted of 30,932 perſons *.

In

* Heym's Encyclopædia of the ruſſian empire, p. 137.—Former but very circumſtantial accounts of the colonies on the Volga

In the government of St Peterſburg the coloniſts chiefly follow agriculture and gardening; as the products of their induſtry fetch a good price in the reſidence, accordingly they all live in eaſy circumſtances. In the government of Tchernigof, where their number amounts to about three thouſand, they form five villages, having two churches, one ſerved by a lutheran, and the other by a catholic divine. — But no where is the mixture of nations more motley and curious than in the government of Ekatarinoſlaf, which is more than half inhabited by coloniſts. We meet here Germans, Swedes, Italians, german Mennoniſts, Greeks, Bolgarians, Serbians, Arnauts, Albaneſes, and Armenians. The laſt particularly are not only the moſt numerous, but likewiſe in many reſpects the moſt uſeful of the coloniſts of theſe parts. When the peninſula of the Krimea, in the turkiſh war preceding the laſt, was haraſſed by inteſtine commotions, theſe laborious and peaceable people petitioned for protection and an aſylum in the ruſſian territory; the empreſs granted them both, and thus aroſe the flouriſhing colony at Naſchitſchevan, which now holds no inconſiderable a place among the induſtrious manufacturing towns of the empire.

Beſides the great number of foreign ſettlers who came to Ruſſia in conſequence of the above-men-

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Volga may be ſeen in Pallas's travels, tom. iii. p. 608—618. And of the colony of the moravian brethren at Sarepta, id. ib. tom. iii. p. 560 to 567.

tioned invitations, and were there eſtabliſhed at the expence of the ſtate, the reputation alone of Catharine's wiſe and benign adminiſtration annually attracted a very conſiderable number of foreigners to her dominions. A country which affords ſo many reſources to induſtry; in which it is always very eaſy, with any degree of diligence and merit, to arrive at reſpect and competence; where a complete toleration and an almoſt unbounded freedom of trade ſubſiſt, and where the government ſo willingly receives every foreigner: — ſuch a country as this muſt naturally, amidſt the oppreſſions and ſhocks which are felt in a great part of Europe, be a welcome refuge to thouſands of mankind denied protection or bread in their own. Indeed this ſlow and ſcarcely perceptible increaſe which the population of the ruſſian empire receives from year to year, is far greater than would at firſt be imagined, and enriches not only the countries on the coaſts, but even the inland provinces of the empire.

Many other means ſucceſsfully employed by the adminiſtration for augmenting the maſs of people muſt be here paſſed over in ſilence, in order not to entangle ourſelves in too circumſtantial an account. Among theſe are the encouragement and multiplication of the branches of livelihood, whereby the number of perſons in good circumſtances is increaſed as the moſt effectual incitement to matrimony; alſo the uſeful occupation of criminals, who, inſtead of being rendered unſerviceable to civil ſociety,

are either employed in the public works or in the colonization of defert regions. This latter method, which has been practiſed in modern times by England with great ſucceſs, has been long purſued in Ruſſia, to the very material benefit of the population of the empire. There, in the milder regions of Siberia, where the teeming but uncultivated earth is obliged to confine within itſelf its luxuriant riches, the exile, who by his vices or crimes has forfeited the protection of ſociety, finds a freſh opportunity for becoming happy himſelf, and uſeful to the community, by a numerous and better progeny. Like the other coloniſts the ſtate provides for theſe unfortunate beings, by furniſhing them with the means of future comfort. On their ſettling they are ſupplied with money and materials; and for the three firſt years receive alſo an ample ſtore of proviſions. —In conſequence of theſe wiſe and humane principles Siberia throughout has already gained much in culture. "If we conſider," ſays an eye-witneſs of theſe uſeful colonies *, "that Siberia, not quite two "hundred years ago, was a wilderneſs utterly un- "known, and in point of population was even far "behind the almoſt defert tracts of North America, "we may juſtly be aſtoniſhed at the preſent ſtate of "this part of the world and at the multitude of its "ruſſian inhabitants, who in numbers greatly exceed "the natives. Certainly, as the diſcovery and rapid

* Pallas, travels, tom. ii. p. 513. tom. iii. p. 7.

"conqueſt

" conqueſt of ſo enormous, unknown, and perfectly
" ſavage a tract of country, from the Ural to the
" eaſtern ocean, muſt remain an everlaſting monu-
" ment of the genius, the intrepidity, and perſever-
" ance of the ruſſian nation: ſo much have we
" reaſon to admire the peopling of it as a maſter-
" piece of political wiſdom!"

THE END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

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